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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the last ten issues (1985-1994) of the annual serial "Awareness: Journal of the Colorado Counseling Association" (formerly the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development). Articles in this serial focus on a variety of issues of importance to counselors. (AA)

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The Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development

Awareness

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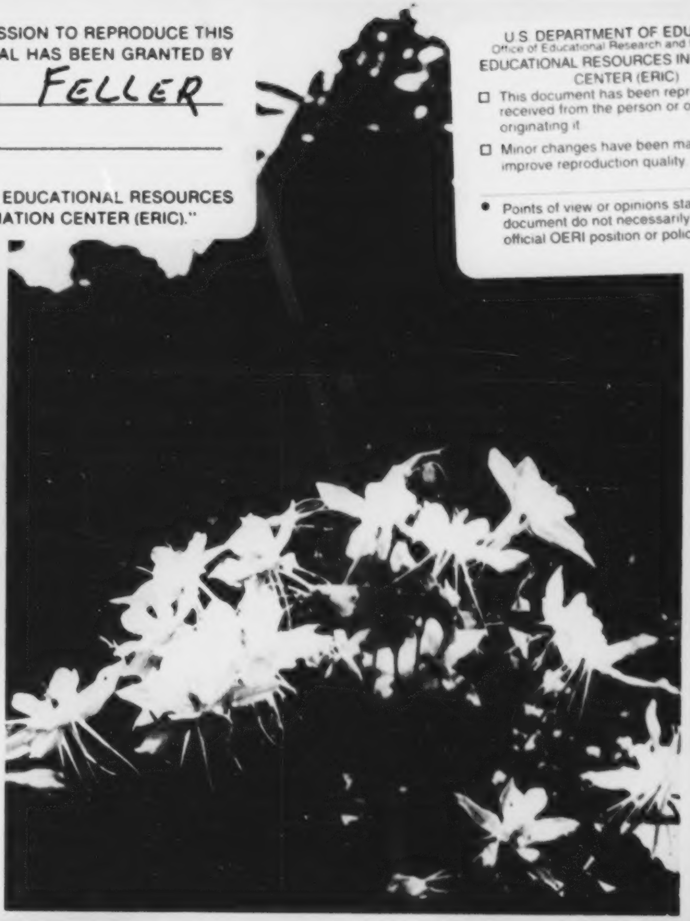

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Spring 1985

The Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development

Awareness

Spring 1985
Volume 13

Editors' Note

As we direct our energies to the professional challenges of 1985, no single issue demands more of our concern and energy than the attempts of the world powers to reduce nuclear weapons arsenals. It is now almost our fortieth year of living with the distinct possibility of a nuclear war—a war which now has potential for the total annihilation of the planet. A parallel concern must be the trampling of human rights throughout the world. Whether our focus is upon Apartheid in South Africa, Soviet aggression against the Afghans, or the denial of basic rights to Polish workers, one fact is quite clear. Humans have yet to learn how to resolve interpersonal conflict positively and peacefully. Professionals in the field of counseling and human services should have more skill and knowledge in interpersonal relations than politicians or soldiers. Perhaps we need to learn how to share this competency with thousands of others, to influence the political process, and become effective advocates for human rights. We dedicate this issue of *Awareness* to the cause of peace and justice throughout the world.

Anne Roark
Daryl Sander
Editors for *Awareness*,
The Journal of the Colorado
Association for Counseling and
Development

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Self-Concept: The Needs of Children

by Gwen Findley

As an elementary school counselor, I have encountered many aspects of children and their growth, and I find that at the base of most problems and concerns lies the child's self-concept. How positively it has developed and how the child views the world is most often the key to solving the problem at hand. Children rely, even at an early age, upon their experience to dictate their further behavior.

A child's self-concept emerges gradually over the first two years of life. When a child develops a sense of self, he/she also develops the emotions of pride and shame. Whenever a child's behavior is influenced by this pride and shame, self-concept is being further developed and molded by each and every experience the child has. Many factors are involved in these experiences. Regardless of socioeconomic status, how each experience is viewed and integrated will determine how detrimental or useful it will be in the development of a positive self-concept. Children spend most of their waking hours creating their viewpoints about themselves and others and use these viewpoints to make decisions about themselves and the world.

Just about the time they have an understanding (positive or negative) of the world, they are sent to school. Once they were the youngest, and the apple of their mother's eye; now they are among many, all looking for recognition and defining their role as school children.

Because of the age range (5-11) and the broad range of experiences in that age range, the role of an elementary school counselor is diverse. Elementary school is part of the development of self-concept and is one of the most powerful influences in a child's life. Our educational system often creates a win/lose situation in the mind of a child. Children do not always understand competition which is evident in elementary school; thus, they interpret not being first, or at the top of the class, as meaning they are not important, or they are worthless, or they do not deserve love.

Coupled with the messages which a child brings to school and what the school presents, children may indeed develop poor self-concepts. Administrators, parents, teachers and school counselors must intervene in this process. Children need to have their self-concept reaffirmed as often as possible. They need to accept themselves and be accepted for who they are. Their feelings and opinions need to be allowed self-investigation without degradation in order that their self-concept can develop fully, and positively.

This need is not only directed toward children. School counselors are

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often the leaders in educating the other significant adults in a child's life about allowing positive self-concepts to evolve in the life of children. Typically, parents and many teachers are not aware of how critically they affect a child. Harsh words, glances, insinuations, and "adult" conversations are often the molders of a child's negative self-concept, when their intention is to motivate. Teaching children and adults about how to re-direct these messages and bring about positive self-concepts are a crucial part of an elementary school counselor's role. The intent and purpose here is not to give "how-tos," but to raise a conscious awareness of the needs of children. As adults, we are able to sift through the rubble and the flowers and make decisions about the world. Children often do not know the worth or the value of the rubble and the flowers and, thus, make negative decisions about themselves and those that care for them.

Being a self-concept promoter and modeling a positive self-concept for others are two important ways school counselors, teachers, parents, and administrators can aid in the development of a better world for children.

Children learn instinctively and intuitively how to survive, who and when to trust, what works and what hurts in their relationships with people and the world. We must support them, create positive environments for them, and guide them as they grow. It is important that their self-concepts are enhanced and they are rewarded for being who they are—children.

The Disruptive Child in the Classroom

by Suzanne I. Foster

Perhaps one of the most frustrating and time-consuming aspects of teaching is dealing with the disruptive child in the classroom. Much research has been devoted to exploring methods for dealing with disruptive behavior. This article will give a general overview of mildly to moderately disruptive behavior, including: identification, suggestions for the teacher, and counseling intervention strategies.

Disruptive behavior can be defined as any behavior that is disturbing to the teacher (Lewin, Nelson & Tollefson, 1983). Examples of disruptive behavior include: talking out of turn, inappropriate responses, fidgeting, making unusual noises or motions, being distracted or distracting others. Disruptive behavior can generally be described as a lack of self-control or lack of adherence to the classroom rules.

Research indicates that teacher attitude contributes significantly to the effectiveness of intervention strategies (Lewin, et al. 1983). In their study, Lewin et al. (1983) discovered that teachers with a negative attitude toward particular students continued to find those students to be disruptive even after the defined disrupting behaviors were eliminated. In addition, teachers with good discipline and classroom management techniques have been found to have fewer problems with disruptive children. The most effective way to promote nondisrupting behavior is to provide an objective environment with clearly defined rules and consistent reinforcement.

Since the environment plays such an important role in a student's behavior, it is desirable to help the teacher become more effective. One method for helping the teacher to become more aware of the environment is to video-tape a class session (Lewin, et al. 1983). While reviewing the tape, it is helpful to identify the teacher's ideology concerning student management. The theories can range from noninterventionist, or "looking on," to interactionalist (questioning, directive statements), to interventionist, or dealing with a problem physically. While the theories themselves can be debated, research indicates that the teacher with an eclectic approach has more resources to draw upon in dealing with the disruptive child and is, therefore, more effective (Glickman, and Wolfgang 1978). By helping the teachers to identify their own style and exposing them to other ideologies, the counselor, in effect, gives teachers more methods to choose from.

Another way the counselor can help the teacher deal with the disrup-

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tive child is to provide concrete tools to use. One such tool is the contract (Hackney, 1974). This is basically a behavior modification method that is clearly spelled out on paper, with all parties concerned signing their agreement to the expectations, rewards, consequences, and time frames. Another concrete method is to help the teacher develop an assertive discipline program. This would include clearly stated rules and a consistent method for rewards and punishments.

Before the counselor begins to work with the child, he/she should obtain as much historical information on the child as possible, including the following: a specific statement of the problem and duration, methods used to correct the problem, peer interactions, interactions with adults, school records, family background, recent emotional upsets, and physical health. This information can be obtained by talking to teachers, parents, and friends. Also, records should be reviewed and casual observations in the classroom setting should be made. By identifying the cause of the problem, the counselor can then decide on the best course of action to take.

One method the counselor can use in dealing with the disruptive child is to initiate individual counseling. This would be the most appropriate method to use with the child who shows a tendency toward disruptive behavior. By developing a rapport in a safe environment, the child is more likely to share a particularly upsetting event or developmental problem than he/she would in a larger group setting or less safe environment. Within this setting, the counselor could use such tools as puppetry or role-playing to encourage self-disclosure on the part of the child (Muro and Dinkmeyer, 1977).

Group counseling is particularly effective with those students who have consistently proven to be disruptive. In developing a group, it is important to include good student role models who have the respect of their peers. This environment not only provides a model for the disruptive child, but also for a consistent system of feedback from peers both inside and outside of the group setting. This support system can be a powerful force in helping the disruptive child to adopt new behaviors in the classroom setting.

The overall goal in dealing with the disruptive child is to effect a positive change in behavior. This change can be promoted by helping the teacher to become more effective in dealing with the behavior and helping the student take more responsibility for the behavior. By being disruptive, the child is probably seeking attention in a negative, destructive manner. The methods outlined above provide children with opportunities to learn behaviors that will give them positive attention as well as helping to insure successful school experiences.

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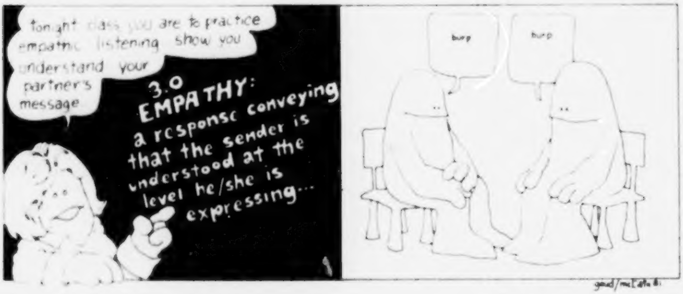
Misunderstandings of the Empathy Response and A Test for Counselors

by I. David Welch and James A. Foos

In April 1982, *The Personnel and Guidance Journal* published a cartoon purporting to demonstrate the empathy response (p. 482). The cartoon is reproduced below. The cartoon shows an instructor defining empathy while the second panel shows two "classmembers" practicing. The definition, while not incorrect, is lacking. The demonstration panel is completely in error. This cartoon presentation misrepresents the empathy response. A real problem in a journal representing the counseling profession!


tonight class you are to practice empathic listening show you understand your partner's message
3.0 EMPATHY: a responsc conveying that the sender is understood at the level he/she is expressing...
burp
burp

DEFINITIONS OF EMPATHY

Practically every book on counseling has a definition of empathy. We have selected an early, but lasting, definition from the work of Carl Rogers. Rogers (1959) defines empathy as follows:

> The state of empathy, or being empathic, is to perceive the internal frame of reference of another with accuracy and with the emotional components and meanings which pertain thereto as if one were the person, but without ever losing the "as if" condition. Thus it means to sense the hurt or the pleasure of another as he senses it and to perceive the causes thereof as he perceives them, but without ever losing the recognition that it is as if I were hurt or pleased and so forth. If this "as if" quality is lost, then the state is one of identification. (pp. 210-211)

Here, Rogers has defined the state of empathy. The empathy response

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is defined further by Eisenberg and Delaney (1977). They say:

> The effective empathic response affirms to the client "I have understood not only the overt part of your message but also the underlying significance that it has for you." (p. 93)

Therefore, we can see that accurate empathy has two parts. First, the counselor understands the content and feelings of the client. Second, the counselor is able to effectively communicate that understanding to the client.

If this is a definition of empathy, then what is not empathy? Gazda, et al (1977) tells us "Empathy and sympathy are different. Sympathy means that the helper experiences the same emotions as the helpee. It is not necessary to experience the helpee's feelings to be helpful. You can help if you can understand how the other person feels, and that is what is meant by empathy." (p. 62) Benjamin (1974) agrees that sympathy and empathy are not the same. In addition, he says, "Nor should empathy be confused with identification. . . . Empathy always involves two distinctly separate selves; identification results in one. When the interviewer identifies with the interviewee, he becomes the interviewee." (p. 49)

Carkhuff and Pierce (1981) have provided us with a scale to rate empathy responses. This scale helps us discriminate helpful from non-helpful responses. The major points of the scale are provided below.

Rating Scale for Helper Responses

1.0 Feeling and content both absent or both inaccurate

2.0 Accurate response to content, but feeling absent or inaccurate

3.0 Accurate response to content and feeling

4.0 Accurate response to personalized problem, feeling and goal (first statement of a goal to be acted upon)

5.0 Accurate response to personalized problem and goal, and accurate identification of steps. (contains at least one specific step toward the goal)

CRITICISM

Using the definitions above, it can be seen that the cartoon presented in the April 1982 issue of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* fails to accurately represent empathy in several respects. First the definition in the cartoon is limited. Second, the panel depicting an empathy response does not do that. It instead depicts either sympathy or identification. On the rating scale developed by Carkhuff and Pierce, it is, at best, a 2.0 response. Tsk, tsk, tsk!

A TEST FOR COUNSELORS

Given the information provided in this article, a test has been developed to assess the new knowledge gained in this article. Please take the test below. Pick a response. Rate your response.

Burp

That's disgusting. Try to control yourself.

Burp

How 'bout them Broncos!

You have gas and you are mildly embarrassed because you belched in public.

A complete computer software package is available for scoring. Simply contact the authors for information and costs.

SUMMARY

This scholarly article has pointed out some basic misunderstandings of the empathy response presented in a cartoon published in our major professional journal. It has attempted to provide information accurately defining empathy as well as a practice test to allow counselors to test their new knowledge. Possibilities for scoring have been suggested.

*With apologies to Goud and McCain.

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Extending the Counseling Practicum: The Counselor Training Laboratory

by Stacey Arnett, Evelyn Bassoff, and Susan Jackson

The purposes of this report are to describe the development and implementation of the Counselor Training Laboratory, an in-house practicum/internship experience offered through the University of Colorado's School of Education in Boulder. Specifically, we will describe how such a laboratory is simultaneously used for practice, supervision and research.

RATIONALE

The Counselor Training Laboratory was instituted as an adjunct to the traditional practicum, in which students counsel in settings off campus with non-faculty supervisors. Although the counseling practicum plays a central role in the training of counselors (Dustin, 1984; Ibrahim & Thomas, 1982; Kramer & Ryabik, 1981), it frequently fails to provide rigorous supervision (Holloway, 1982). In our experience, supervision by non-faculty supervisors tended to be uneven. Hence, not all our practicum students benefitted from their practica. Our primary purpose, then, in setting up the Laboratory was to counter this deficiency. Our secondary purpose was to subject the effects of counseling practice and supervision to continual research. Essentially, we wished to set up a circular system wherein counseling practice and supervision would generate evaluation and research among our doctoral students, which in turn would modify our current practice of counseling and supervision.

STRUCTURE OF LABORATORY

Based on the results of a needs assessment administered to doctoral counseling students, faculty members, and off-campus practicum supervisors ($n = 102$), as well as on information gathered informally from administrators, faculty, and students, a physical facility was designed and constructed. It includes two counseling rooms to accomodate groups or individual sessions, an observation area equipped with audio-visual instruments and one-way mirrors, and a reception area.

Doctoral interns, under the direction of faculty members, administer the Laboratory by screening clients and assigning them to practicum students, coordinating use of the counseling rooms and audiovisual equipment, and maintaining liaisons with community referral sources. Faculty advisors oversee research projects carried out in the Laboratory.

Since confidentiality is a consideration, prospective clients are pro-

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The authors, whose names are listed alphabetically, Stacy Arnett, M.A.; Evelyn Bassoff, Ph.D.; and Susan Jackson, M.A., are associated with the School of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder.

vided with written information describing the services and research focus of the Laboratory. They are also required to agree in writing to the taping and observing of sessions, which is limited to faculty, supervisors, and counselors-in-training.

SUPERVISION

The Laboratory incorporates various kinds of supervisor, setting, and technique as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Modalities for Supervision

Supervisor	Faculty practicum supervisors Peers Advanced students Consultants
Setting	One-to-one Group
Techniques	Direct observation (via one-way mirror) Audio/video replay Case presentation Informal case review/discussion

A faculty practicum supervisor or advanced doctoral students, all experienced and active clinicians, regularly supervise the trainees. In addition, trainees regularly observe and provide feedback to their peers. Outside consultants, such as the staff psychiatrist from the local mental health center and directors of community agencies, offer brief consultations to the trainees. Since the Laboratory offers counseling services at no cost to the public, community agencies have been generous in their support of it, both by referring appropriate and diversified clients and by providing adjunctive supervision.

Supervision occurs in one-to-one and group settings. Meetings are arranged between the supervisor and student, and weekly practicum class meetings are held for the purpose of client case review. Direct observation via one-way mirrors and sound systems, video and audio replays of sessions, formal oral case persentations and informal case reviews and discussion are techniques for supervision. Supervisors or peers critique the counselor either after the session or, in the case of replay, during it.

RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

Isolated studies, which often do not build on previous work, are characteristic of the research on supervision in counseling (Hansen, Robins, & Grimes, 1982). Hence, the advanced training of counselors tends to be somewhat haphazard. A major objective of the Laboratory is to generate research projects specifically in the areas of training and supervision. The diversified supervisory and training activities fostered in the Laboratory provide rich opportunities in the form of classroom projects and doctoral dissertations. To promote such research, a seminar on special topics in counseling research was introduced in the curriculum. In it students are encouraged to propose and develop research plans for the Laboratory. Moreover, records of client cases are organized in a way to facilitate research projects. For example, clients are required to provide extensive demographic information, information is color-coded, and so forth. Hence, the Counselor Training Laboratory invites continual review of its activities and promotes experimentation.

SUMMARY

The Counselor Training Laboratory has two main objectives: (1) to provide counselors-in-training highly supervised counseling experiences with a diversity of clients; and (2) to promote research and evaluation of counseling practice and supervision. The underlying principle is that faculty and administrators have an obligation to promote what they judge to be effective techniques of counseling and to provide what they judge to be effective supervision. However, they also have an obligation to invite sound but critical review of their pedagogical offerings.

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Counselor Trainees' Exposure to the Client Role: Implications for Training

by Pennelope Skoglund

In looking toward the future of counseling in Colorado, it is relevant to look at counseling education programs and curriculum. Programs must continue to explore training strategies which will increase student effectiveness. In looking at possible strategies, one of the important areas of inquiry that emerges is student characteristics. Personal growth activities which enhance desirable student characteristics have been researched over the years (Schwab & Harris, 1981; Borgers, 1972; Cerra, 1969; Kassera, 1968; Kemp, 1962; and Hunt, 1962). Such activities, leading to personal growth and increased self awareness, help students reflect upon personal biases, fears, opinions, etc. (Hunt, 1962). This author believes that personal counseling, in addition to academic and experiential components of graduate programs, is an activity which can enhance student characteristics and lead to increased effectiveness.

The purpose of this study was to determine the amount exposure to personal counseling of masters and doctoral students in Guidance and Counseling at the University of Colorado, Boulder. The amount of counseling received by both groups was compared. Their attitudes about personal counseling being a component of their graduate program were explored.

The participants were 27 students pursuing their masters degree in Guidance and Counseling and 25 doctoral students in the same program. A questionnaire designed by this researcher was submitted to all the students. They were asked how much counseling they had received prior to their graduate work, how much they were currently receiving, and what their attitudes were about personal counseling being included in their graduate program.

Analysis

The *t*-test determined whether the amount of counseling received or attitudes about personal counseling differed for the two groups of students.

Results and Discussion

Questions 1, 2, 3, and 4 (Table I) looked at whether (1) personal counseling was desirable for students in this field, (2) whether it should be required, (3) whether students would accept personal counseling if it were offered, and (4) whether students would attend such counseling if it were required in their program. No differences were found between the groups on these questions. Of the masters students, 85%

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stated counseling was desirable and 51% said it should be required. For the doctoral students the figures were 80% and 44%, respectively.

The difference between the groups in the amount (in months) of counseling before graduate work was not significant ($p=.102$). 66% of the masters students and 48% of the doctoral students experienced some counseling before beginning their graduate work. The difference in the amount of counseling currently being undertaken by the groups was significant ($p=.013$). 22% of the masters students and 36% of the doctoral students were currently seeing a counselor. Experience of any type or amount of counseling before or during their program was 70% for masters students and 76% for doctoral students.

Of those students who had obtained little or no previous counseling, the masters students showed significantly more interest in entering counseling ($p=.022$).

These findings indicate considerable exposure to personal counseling by the students questioned. The Task Panel Reports Submitted to the President's Commission on Mental Health (1978) stated that less than 10% of the general public has utilized some type of counseling service. These counseling students are not representative of the general public in this respect.

Counseling students are given credit for intelligence and academic ability upon admission to their graduate programs, but are they given credit for their personal counseling experience? In view of the interest these students showed in personal counseling and their attitudes about its inclusion in their program, there are implications for counselor training programs. A pertinent question is whether or not students without the experience operate at a disadvantage in their program. Another issue is the availability of low cost counseling to students who want it. Eleven students in this study indicated they were interested in personal counseling, but had not done anything about it because of cost.

Evaluation of student performance as correlated with personal counseling experience would help determine whether personal counseling is sufficiently important to be required before admission or during graduate work in counseling. This is a controversial issue for counselor education. To date, the literature on student effectiveness as a result of personal growth experiences is inconclusive (Foster, 1972; Felker, 1970; McClain, 1969; and Wirt, Betz, Engle, 1969). More research on personal growth of students and subsequent competencies is needed. In the meantime, the self understanding which students have gained from their own personal counseling should be drawn upon fully in their graduate work.

Table I
Comparison of Masters and Doctoral Students

	M.A.s		Ph.D.s				
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	*t*	*df*	Prob.
1. Counseling is desirable	1.15	.36	1.13	.34	.18	47.4	.860
2. Counseling should be required	1.48	.51	1.54	.51	-.42	48.3	.675
3. Would accept, if offered	1.15	.36	1.10	.31	.49	44.1	.625

Table I (Continued)
Comparison of Masters and Doctoral Students

	M.A.s		Ph.D.s				
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	*t*	*df*	Prob.
4. Would attend, if required	1.15	.37	1.26	.45	-.92	47.0	.364
5. Counseling before M.A. (in months)	5.07	6.8	11.00	16.3	-1.68	31.6	.102
6. Counseling now (in months)	1.40	3.7	13.50	23.1	-2.55	24.1	.018
7. Considered counseling, not done it yet	1.60	.51	1.90	.34	-2.38	38.7	.022

Questions 1-4, 7: *Yes=1, No=2*

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The Human Connection in a Technological Age: Challenge to Counselors

by Marty Chance

No greater challenge to counselors and professionals in the helping professions has been given in "molding" the future than that given at the Arlie House Conference in Washington, D.C. recently. "You can become the 'catalyst' "! The emerging vision for counseling and guidance is a move from the counselor for the "imminent" future toward providing "human development across a life span throughout the community."

The latest management theory, Theory Z, provides evidence that productivity may be dependent upon *trust, sublety,* and *intimacy.* "As a nation, we have developed a sense of the value of technology and of a scientific approach to it, but we have meanwhile taken people for granted" (Ouchi, 1981, p. 4).

Consequently, this nation needs a new theory of education, Theory E (Gelatt, 1984). At the same time that business and industry have been losing track of people in the wake of the technological explosion, education has been losing track of the learner. Schools, colleges and universities have forgotten the human side of learner development. We need a new kind of business management PLUS a new kind of education to provide the balance John Naisbitt (1982) calls "high tech/high touch."

A new kind of education must attempt to achieve EXCELLENCE AND EQUALITY. This education is called "EDUCARE" (Gelatt, 1984). The main ingredient of this new education is empathy (a capacity for sharing in the interests of another), appreciation, compassion, understanding, and sensitivity. Empathy, trust, sublety and intimacy have always been a part of the counseling tradition.

We have always known that the human side of industrial/technological development is important but we have assumed that it was adequately infused in our counseling "routines." The Arlie House Conference addressed four new basic skills for learners (those to which we have continually ascribed):

1. Decision-making—life is a continuum of decisions evolving from "information overload."
2. Planning for life careers and continual education-technological literacy; crossing over an array of job areas.
3. Coping skills—responsibility (moral, ethical); interpersonal relationships; communication.

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4. Academic—increased levels of competencies in math, reading, writing, and computer literacy.

"There is good news and bad news," stated Thomas Peters in summarizing findings for a formula for excellent corporations (Peters & Waterman, 1982. "The bad news is there is no magic; the good news is there is no magic. What the excellent companies do is pay obsessive attention to the customer and to common sense." What education needs to do to be excellent is to pay obsessive attention to both the learner and to common sense.

Thus, we face the basic doctrine of the counseling profession—paying close attention tothe learner (using empathy, understanding, and sensitivity) and following our common sense about human growth and development. What is new about Theory E is that it *demands* that the values, goals, and methods of the counseling profession become the BASIC DOCTRINE (the common sense) of future education (Gelatt, 1984).

Significant trends in society and in our institutions of learning must be recognized and dealt with. They even caused the creation of the largest educational grant ever awarded, $4,070,670 by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, for the collaborative effort of PROJECT LEARN (Johnson, 1984, p. i). These trends are:

1. Adult learners are becoming the majority in our educational institutions.
2. Institutions are not changing either to meet the needs of adults or to incorporate what has been learned about adults in the past three decades.
3. Technology has made available new delivery methods to individualize learning.

American business is searching for excellence. American education is demanding excellence; American society is preaching equality. At the same time, modern technology is changing our lives at a rate faster than we can comprehend.

Dr. Barry Weinhold, Professor of Psychology, University of Colorado, Colorado Springs, said in a speech before the 1984 convention of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development, "READY, FIRE, AIM has become our motto. We are taking the longest strides man has ever made and moving FAST."

Thus, the question is: Can a modern, democratic, technological society preach and practice equality and pursue and produce excellence? To make an affirmative answer, change toward a new role for the counseling profession is evident. One change demands the recognition that good education provides for individual differences; therefore, excellent education should not produce equality. An equal education will not produce equal excellence (Gelatt, 1984).

John Gardner (1961) points out that a democracy deals with individual differences in ability and performance in two ways: one is to "protect the slow runner and curb the swift," the other way is simply to "let the best man win" (p. 5). Public education in America is trying to do both. People are not equal in their native gifts or in their motivations; thus, they will not be equal in their achivements. America must have as her social and educational philosophy "equality of opportunity."

A whole-grain view of the results of this philosophy provides some insight into future educational policy. Equality of opportunity in American education means an equal chance for everyone to compete in a broader framework of skills allowing wide individual differences and honoring the achievement of each person's POTENTIAL. Gardner further stresses, "We must learn to honor excellence (indeed to demand it) in every socially accepted human activity, however humble the activity, and to scorn shoddiness, however exalted the activity." (Gardner, p. 86).

To seek the development of human potentialities at all levels is a basic precept of both democracy and counseling. Thus, it is possible in a democracy to have excellence in education and, simultaneously, to educate everyone to the limit of his/her potential. Rather than narrowing standards, it dictates broadening the standards of excellence.

If we agree that a democratic Information Society needs to foster a pervasive and universal striving for excellence, and we are willing to embrace a broad definition of excellence, then we can understand what is needed to reform education for the future (Gelatt, 1984).

Education is most certainly in what Naisbitt (1982) calls the "period of parenthesis," what Bridges (1980) calls "the neutral zone," and what Ferguson (1980) describes as a time when "the man on the flying trapeze is in between trapezes."

"Excellence in education means, at the level of the individual learner, performing on the boundary of individual ability in ways that test and push back personal limits in school and in the workplace." (*A Nation at Risk*, National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). If a society adopts this policy, it will be prepared to respond to the challenges of a rapidly changing world.

Excellence also means focusing attention on improving *learning*, not simply improving schools. Much of what students learn is outside of school; most of what adults learn is self-induced and self-managed. We need an approach using future-oriented thinking (looking ahead to see the new kind of future we want to create) to produce an Information Society solution (finding creative new ways) (Naisbitt, 1982, p. 18).

What is the future mission of counseling? Gelatt (1984) says we must broaden our concept of excellence. We can change education by encouraging, promoting, even demanding, a *C*reative *A*nd *R*esponsible *E*xcellence—CARE. EDUCARE—a profound and futuristic mission.

Solution to this educational crisis will come from a redefinition of our aim, not from a redoubling of our efforts. "When a business environment changes, a company or organization must reconceptualize its purpose in light of the changing world." (Naisbitt, 1982, p. 85). The environment of education has changed; consequently, we need to change its purpose.

When we broaden our concept of excellence and the learning environment, our role will be one of leadership. Broader concepts and expanding our methods of counseling, teaching, thinking and learning will put the counseling profession "in the driver's seat on the road to excellence and equal educational reform." (Gelatt, 1984, p. 8).

> "The reasonable man adapts himself to the world, the unreasonable one persists in trying to adapt the world to himself. Therefore, all progress depends on the unreasonable man."
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> (George Bernard Shaw)

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Cross-Cultural Counseling: Another Perspective

by Albert E. Roark, Daryl Sander, and Anne Roark

Much of the literature on cross-cultural counseling has placed major emphasis on information pertaining to cultural differences with relatively little attention given to the practical matters of what things counselors might need to do differently when working with culturally different clients. To properly address this issue we must first define counseling and culture, and then we must consider how cultural differences are likely to affect counseling. Finally, helping a counselee change his or her perspective on life may be the most direct way a counselor can be of help.

Counseling may be defined in many ways. One definition we have found useful is that it is ". . . any ethical activity based upon behavioral science principles, that helps clients become better able to capitalize on and use their personal resources, abilities, and circumstances so that they will be more effective, capable, satisfied, and happy . . ." (Sander, Bassoff, & Roark, 1983). Counseling is intended to help another person through the mysteries of the relationship, or through specific activities performed during the relationship. "For effective counseling to occur, the counselor and client must be able to appropriately and accurately send and receive both verbal and nonverbal messages" (Sue and Sue, 1977, p. 420). Cross-cultural counseling is defined as any "counseling relationship in which two or more of the participants are culturally different" (Atkinson, Morten, and Sue, 1983, p. 262).

Definitions of culture also vary; but defined simply, "culture consists of all those things that people have learned to do, believe, value, and enjoy in their history. It is the ideals, beliefs, skills, tools, customs, and institutions into which each member of society is born" (Sue and Sue, 1977). Effective counseling requires effective communication between the participants and awareness of cultural differences on the part of the counselor. Consequently, it is both counseling and understanding which receive extensive attention in the counseling literature.

Emphasizing cultural differences, communication problems, and similar considerations within the counseling relationship has certain risks, however. In the process of recognizing differences, we are prone to overlook similarities and underestimate variability within groups. We are proposing an approach to helping which accepts (1) that there are differences among groups as well as among individuals, and (2) that there are common human tendencies among all individuals regardless of their cultural identity.

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The basic assumptions underlying the counseling approach we are proposing are based on our 70 years of combined experience and not upon an extensive review of the literature. We believe that all persons have dreams, set goals, have to make decisions, and have to solve problems. How counselees approach these tasks and how we as counselors effectively participate with them in these tasks is determined by six factors: awareness, assumptions, information, logic, goals, and wisdom.

Awareness

Awareness of our surroundings and personal opportunities varies in degree, understanding, and depth of comprehension from one person to another. Unless persons come from the same society or culture, they can not "read" the society or culture in the same way. Culturally, a person may not be aware whether or not the dinner table is properly set. Politically, it may not be clear what it will mean if a particular candidate is elected. Socially, the effect of attending or dropping out of school may not be readily apparent to an individual.

The means for preventing excessive soil erosion may be understood at a far different level by the midwestern farmer who is paid a government subsidy to leave erosion prone farmland fallow, compared to the subsistence farmer in Ethiopia who is struggling to till every square meter of land for maximum grain yields. Both are aware to some degree of the harmful effects of wind and water erosion on the land, but they vary considerably in awareness and the basic assumptions which they draw from that awareness.

Assumptions

The assumptions which we draw from our awarness vary in significant degrees. Persons who have lived all their lives in rural or suburban environments may have little awareness of the effects of youth gangs upon educational opportunities in the large city ghetto. The Chicago teenager who is dependent upon his/her neighborhood gang for protection while going to and from school draws far different basic assumptions about the fact of gang existence than does the suburban youth who sees the gangs solely in negative terms and assumes that city life would be vastly improved if the gangs were eliminated.

Lack of understanding, then, may imply that one simply does not see surroundings and opportunities. Or, if one does see the possibilities, he/she may not know why things are the way they are or how the surroundings and opportunities apply to them. The counselor may be helpful in demonstrating these connections through helping counselees to make decisions now and through helping them to see the connection to future life. For example, minority clients may be aware that others they know are going to college. But if the minority person doesn't understand how college fits in with working and with the possibilities for his/her adult life, the counselor can help the client see the relationship between current decisions and future opportunities. If a client doesn't understand how capable and bright she/he is, the counselor can help the client recognize and act on personal opportunities.

There is generally a different understanding of the dominant culture among minorities. Those who see themselves as members of the dominant culture are more likely to hold assumptions which are in line with the dominant culture. Those who are not well acculturated may draw different, inaccurate assumptions. Assumptions are of primary importance since they are a starting point for beliefs and actions.

The minority person often carries the attitude, "Yeah, I know. But this doesn't apply to me." This distancing from or discounting of facts and information may spring from an attitude that "I'm special so I don't have to go along with the cultural or societal rules" or from an attitude "If I do make the effort, I won't get the payoffs". Feelings of self efficacy are central. If people don't feel and believe "I can do it", often they won't even try even though past experiences may demonstrate that they can. A lack of self efficacy can lead to feeling left out and feeling like one does not belong.

A challenge of counseling is to help clients recognize, accept, and adopt attitudes which are realistic. The counselor can try to get the client to see him/herself more as he/she really is and to see exactly what he/she can and can't do. Then clients must be encouraged and helped to act upon and benefit from the possibilities which surface through this reality check.

Experience is involved since a lot of what persons in the majority culture take for granted, minorities often have not even experienced. There may be differences in background and experiences in what one has read, what one has done in school (if one has attended school), how adults are treated, and so forth. Vietnamese who migrated to the United States as adolescents have had very different experiences growing up from those adolescents raised in this country. The counselor needs to assess: has the Vietnamese person had the *experience* to make changes in his/her life and to lead a positive life in this culture?

Information

Since the early days of vocational guidance, counselors have recognized the need for information about self and the world in which we live. Schools can perhaps best assume responsibility for information about the world, and to a certain extent, for information about self. Filling in information gaps as a person grows up is the domain of the school. Counselors contribute by working with counselees to help them see the value of information.

Counseling procedures have become increasingly focused upon helping persons exercise some responsibility for acquiring and integrating information about themselves. Self-knowledge still represents an elusive and often difficult goal for individuals to attain. For those who are culturally different, the assumption of responsibility for self-knowledge by the individual may present special problems. The counselor can assist by helping persons understand themselves, any alienation which they may be feeling, and feelings of being caught in between the dominant and minority cultures. The advantages and disadvantages of cultural differences can be examined and explored.

Logic

The logic which we use in combining our awareness and assumptions and integrating these with other information may vary considerably between cultures. The emphasis which white, middle and upper class Americans place upon rational decision-making and our high esteem for that which is empirical rather than emotional or intuitive is not universal across all cultural groups. Clients from culturally different groups may reject entirely what we view as rational and scientific and prefer to reach their conclusions by means which we see as unproductive or self-defeating. Such different approaches may be reconciled within the counseling relationship provided clients experience the counselor as truly trustworthy and genuine.

It is the counselor's job to assist clients to logically integrate their assumptions and the information about self and the world. When logic is askew, thought disorders result. Even if logic is all right, persons may still need help from the counselor to put all the information together. Clients' chances of enhancing their progress in life are increased when integration takes place.

Goals

The goals we strive for in order to achieve our dreams may reflect varying degrees of long-term commitment. Often what happens is that people don't have a vision to use as a guide in setting long-range goals which are commensorate with their abilities and circumstances. Or, people may become fixated on one thing such as trying to live their life the way their parents want them to.

Additionally, persons may fail to see the long-range consequences of their behavior. Short-range goals may be incompatible with long-range goals. An example would be the college student who has a life-career goals to become a physicist. She may also be a person who is artistically inclined; however, this is a hobby and avocation. If she spends all her time drawing, she is not going to achieve her long-range goal of being a physicist.

The goals and dreams which persons set for themselves reflect their self-concept. Persons can have their self-concept so warped or stunted by culture or experiences that setting realistic goals for what they would like to do is nearly impossible. An individual in a minority culture where no one has graduated from high school will have a difficult time seeing him/herself in that circumstance.

Modeling is often helpful in these situations. The counselor can try to arrange for the client to have experiences which they lack. Arrangements can be made for the client to spend time with others who have succeeded and with whom the client can identify. It appears that having successful models is much more important for minorities than for others.

Wisdom

Finally, the wisdom by which we weigh the results of the conclusions arrived at through all of the preceding considerations can be expected to vary both within cultures and across cultural groups. Two individuals may have equal information, may have drawn similar assumptions from their awareness of surroundings, and may possess similar skill and utilize equally good logic. However, they may lack the wisdom to take a detached perspective in order to weigh all the factors and make wise decisions. Thus individuals vary considerably in performance or actual implementation of desired behaviors simply because they vary in that element which might be called wisdom. Minorities may have many strikes against them because what may be a wise decision according to their culture may not be a wise decision in the majority culture. The Hmong inclination to marry around age 14 may have been a wise decision while living in their native land. This decision may serve less well while living in the United States and attending junior high school.

Counseling attempts to help persons see the overall picture, look at long-term goals, and make the wisest decision given the client's personal perspective.

Summary and Conclusions

Any attempt to help must take all six factors into account. The first step is to determine the individual's goals. Once these are known, the helper can procede to determine the source of the difficulty. If the goals themselves are the difficulty, the problem is likely to be more difficult since the individual may resist changing goals; or setting appropriate goals may be a very long process. Once appropriate goals are available, the method of help must be appropriate to the source of the difficulty . . . awareness, assumptions, information, logic, goals, wisdom.

Accepting this position means that we must adopt a more active and flexible method of counseling. In essence, we must do whatever possible to help our counselees. Our efforts must be broadbased and far more flexible than what we may have experienced in traditional approaches. We must become involved in information retrieval, examination of assumptions, learning or relearning methods for combining and integrating data with our clients, and the identification and exploration of something which we have called wisdom. We must be prepared to teach, coach, tutor, as well as counsel. We must provide the appropriate help and provide it directly.

Sensitivity to cultural differences is necessary but is not sufficient. Effective cross-cultural counseling must go beyond sensitivity and awareness, both of which are necessary, but which are enough by themselves.

As Sue and Sue (1977) so aptly stated, "The counselor must be more action oriented in (a) initiating counseling, (b) structuring the interview, and (c) helping clients with pressing social problems of immediate concern to them."

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The Counselor As Futurist

by Jerry L. Terrill

Are you a counselor? Are you a futurist? Isn't it interesting that one can wear one title with relative ease but hesitate to own the other? For many persons the word, futurist, conjures up visions of science fiction fantasies replete with laser beams, space adventure, humanoids, and "Star Wars" revisited. Perhaps, as counselors we should re-think our view of the future so that each of us would see ourselves as futurists. Are you involved in planning for the future? Are you concerned about what the world will be like in 5 or 10 years? Are you interested in teaching students to make decisions and solve problems using skills and information which neither you nor they possess now? Are you working with individuals to help them live in a world which will be far different than the present environment? If you answered "yes" to any of these questions, then you are a futurist. Wear the label proudly!

Paul Valery observed, "The trouble with our time is that the future is not what it used to be." Valery seems to have hit on a key factor in our hesitancy to identify with futurists. So much of our planning and deciding is related to our past experiences and we tend to draw heavily on those experiences as we face new challenges. As futurists, counselors must learn to "experience the future" in much the same way we have experienced the past. This ability requires that we be able to generate possible scenarios, to project ourselves into future situations, to anticipate the future the same as we experience the past. This prospect creates a special problem for counselors since in our efforts at decision making we tend to rely on facts. These facts are all related to the past, yet all of our decisons are related to the future.

Risking

While it has been somewhat fashionable to talk about risk taking in counseling circles, there is still a gap between our "talk" about risking and our "walk" as it relates to actually taking risks. At any point in time it seems that the true futurists were those who were willing to challenge the unknown, to defy the critics, and to break out of the accepted molds which stifled creativity and diversity. For example, when IBM created the first digital computer 25 years ago, it was estimated that there would not be market potential for more than 10 computers in the entire United States. One week prior to the Wright

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brothers first flight, the *New York Times* carried a story ridiculing the idea of human flight. The information and knowledge industry now employs nearly 50% of the total U.S. labor force according to the U.S. Labor Department and accounts for almost half of the gross national product. This force in the national economy has been responsible for introducing a whole new vocabulary related to futurism: "Information Society," "silicon revolution," "Computopia," "videotex," "telematics," "telepropinquity," "ethnotronics," "psychotronics," metanetworking," "electronic mail," "teleconferencing," "electronic cottage," "networld" and on and on. These changes have occurred only because people believed in an idea and risked failure in the pursuit of success.

Changes

Closely tied to the theme of risking is the idea of changing. Counseling is changing and will continue to change. Sometimes these changes are so subtle that we are hardly aware of them. In the time of rapid change in all areas of our lives it seems reasonable to assume that the rate of change in counseling will also accelerate. In the December 1983 *ACES NEWSLETTER* H. P. Gelatt drew an analogy between the need for change in the counseling profession and the Hans Christian Anderson fairytale, "The Emperor's New Clothes." Gelatt recounted the story which describes an emperor who admired beautiful clothes and wanted the best. The conniving tailors he employed to make his new clothes told him their cloth was beautiful, expensive, and magic. This beautiful cloth, they said, was invisible to those who were unfit for the office they held. The emperor's fragile ego caused him to imagine that he could see the cloth, the beautiful clothes; although the clothes were actually made of nothing. During the final parade even the Lords held their heads high and took great trouble to pretend to hold up the train which wasn't there at all. The entire charade was finally destroyed by the innocent observation of a child who simply told it as it was, "But the emperor has nothing on at all!"

It seems that as with risking there may be much lip service given to change but in reality we could simply be gathering our "magical" robes about us and only pretending to change. Perhaps, our greatest wisdom would lie in our recognition of what we don't know, of what is fearful, of what could be, and of the exciting venture of new learning of which we are about to be a part. Our new clothes may require that we find a role of seeker, searcher, learner rather than informer, advisor, or learned. Eric Hoffer, the longshoreman philosopher, observed,

> "In times of change the learner will inherit the earth, while the learned will find themselves beautifully equipped to live in a world that no longer exists."

In thinking about change the question is not so much whether there will be change but rather to what degree will there be change. It is important to remember that accepting change, or even engineering change, does not necessarily imply that what we've been doing was wrong. Margaret Mead captured the essence of this idea when she said,

> "There are only two kinds of teachers in the world, those who learn everything all over every five years, and those who say 'the kids just keep getting worse and worse'."

An exciting prospect for counselors is that we can not only anticipate the future but we can create the future. Once again the choice is between passivity and activity—reactive or proactive!

Excellence

School counselors, particularly, are well aware of the current call for excellence. The Reagan administration's establishment of the Commission on Excellence has drawn new attention to the state of education in this country. The report, *A Nation At Risk*, called for longer school days, longer school year, increased requirements for graduation, better preparation for teachers, and urged citizens to hold educators and leaders accountable for such changes. This call for excellence should give us cause to consider the meaning of the word, excellence. Rather than criticizing others' definitions of the term, perhaps, we ought to be generating our own definition and developing programs to achieve excellence.

This may be a critical time to reassess the connection of school counselors to the educational process. School counselors would do well to define their role, first and foremost, as that of educator! It is important to understand that everything we do should enhance and complement the educational/developmental process for children and youth. Schools do not exist so that teachers and counselors will have a place to work!

Accountability

The accountability movement is at least 15 to 20 years old. Yet, there seems to be minimum impact on the ways most counselors function. A question which continues to be asked all too often is "What do counselors do?" The question would be simple to answer if counselors operated within an accountability model. The essential components of such a model would include: (1) programs based upon needs assessment data, (2) outcomes or objectives stated in measurable terms, (3) a program of activities and strategies designed to produce those outcomes or objectives, and (4) evaluation procedures to indicate the extent to which the outcomes or objectives have been met. In addition to these components an extensive public relations program is essential. Too many counselors still insist that the best "PR" is a quality program. While it may be true that unless there is a good program no amount of "PR" is going to work, it is also true that even the greatest program will fail if people don't know about it or have confidence in it. Coca Cola would never have been known outside of Atlanta if the company hadn't embarked on a giant advertising campaign.

One other issue related to accountability. The best designed program will fail without qualified, professional, counselors. It is vital that programs of the future be staffed with the "right" people. Our accountability efforts should be tied to an insistence on high standards of preparation, skilled professional counselors, and the policing of our own ranks.

What Business Are We In?

John Naisbitt in his best seller, *Megatrends*, challenged his readers with this question, "What business are you in?" He pointed out that if the railroads had asked that question of themselves and answered, "transportation" rather than "railroading" that they may have survived with a great deal more vigor than is currently the case. A definite parallel exists for the counseling profession. What is the business of counselors? The question is certainly critical, but the answer we assign to it is even more significant. If our answer is too narrow we may well follow the fate of the railroads. On the other hand if we answer that question in a manner which is responsive to the needs of our clients and does not lock us into rigid views of "counselor's work" we may well thrive in the years ahead. Let us turn again to school counselors for an example. It may well be that in the future technology will eliminate the need for students to attend school to acquire knowledge, gain information, or learn many of the basic skills. Rather students may need to attend school to learn human skills—those skills related to healthy relationships, effective interpersonal communication and positive self concepts. Think of the implications for counselors!

Human skills are the very domain of counseling and guidance. As we try to anticipate the future it will be important to retain and expand our emphasis on human skills development. Current data indicate that most workers who are terminated from their jobs lose their jobs—not because they are incompetent—but because they can't get along with other people. From that point of view it may be that the future has already arrived.

New Models

Around the first of October, every year, the automobile manufacturers unveil the sleek new models. I can recall the excitement that new car models had for me as a young man. I remember the intrigue of the new equipment, the new accessories, the new body styles, and the increased horse power. Now, I'm more inclined to view the new models as just four wheels and a roof packaged in a different way and I'm apt to look first at the sticker price rather than at the list of options.

It seems that it is timely for counselors to think about new models. It is time to think about new possibilities for delivering services to kids and communities. Are there new ways for counselors to function? How will technology impact the counselor's day? Our interest in new models should be directed at not only more efficiency but also more effectiveness. Tight economic times tend to produce creative solutions to knotty problems. These are times for working smarter, reaching more clients, and generally having more impact.

One of the new models which deserves further attention from counselors is one called a "guaranteed services model." In essence, such a model is based upon a sort of contract between the guidance and counseling program and the board of education. For a specific budgetary allocation the counselors of the district guarantee the delivery of clearly defined services to all students in the targeted grades. Individual counselors also develop agreements about the part of the guaranteed services for which they will be responsible. Such models clearly answer the question, "What do counselors do?"

Transformational Thinking

A major hurdle to counselors responding to the demands of future planning and program development may be the preconceived ideas we hold about many counseling roles and functions. Historically, counselors have spent considerable time developing position statements and descriptions of counselors' roles. Such descriptions may serve to restrict rather than facilitate change and growth. It will be important to examine and revamp many of the "sacred cows" of counseling. Transformational thinking allows us to call up for scrutiny those facets which may have traditionally been viewed as non-negotiable or "off limits." Some of these areas that may need review include: staffing procedures, work year, work day, teaming with other support and special services staff, amount of time spent in consultation vs. the amount of time spent in counseling, development of advisement programs which involve other professionals in the delivery of guidance and counseling services, redefinition of what is professional work for counselors, and the development of programs which are truly accountable.

Future Issues

Following are some of the issues and questions which counselors should be addressing as programs for the future are developed:

1. Employability skills should be a major concern for all individuals. The separation of college and career issues will continue to short change people planning to enter the work force.
2. Counselors should take the leadership in developing peer evaluation strategies.
3. Counselors must develop their skills as managers and organizers.
4. How can counselors help clients maintain a balance between "high tech and high touch" and between productivity and satisfaction?
5. How will technology influence the "work ethic"?
6. What is the future of work? What problems will be associated with shorter work weeks and increased leisure time?
7. How can counselors assist individuals with career guidance and counseling when many of the jobs they will enter don't even exist today?
8. How will longer life spans affect life styles?
9. How can counselors help their clients develop a decision making model which will serve them well in the present and also in the future?
10. How can counselors link with the greater community to tap resources there for the benefit of their clients?
11. What prevention/intervention strategies can be implemented to avert some of the current problems associated with parent/families concerns, transiency, drug/alcohol abuse and other self distructive behaviors, nuclear anxiety, violence, and other issues beyond the control of the school/agency in which the counselor works?

I wish there were more answers and not so many questions on this list. I believe these are issues of the future. Singly we cannot find satisfactory solutions to many of them. However, collectively, I believe counselors can literally change the world!

BOOK REVIEW

THE CHANGE MASTERS: Innovation for Productivity in the American Corporation

by Rosebeth Moss Kanter
Simon & Schuster, New York, 1983.
Reviewed by Donald R. Fulton

If you like books that examine the traditions of the status quo and provide a vision of new things to come, you should be glad to be alive in the 1980's. THE CHANGE MASTERS is definitely a volume that fits on an expanding shelf in your library. It will find its place next to John Naisbitt's observations about national MEGATRENDS. Close by will be Thomas Peters and Robert Waterman's chronicles of corporations IN SEARCH OF EXCELLENCE. If you are involved in higher education and are particularly interested in how some of these visions apply to colleges and universities then another occupant of your shelf will be ACADEMIC STRATEGY by George Keller. You may indeed have other works on this shelf as well, but Kanter's clearly belongs to this stream of observation, comment and suggestion which is offered to today's administrators—a job title which should be a synonym for "change agent."

Here it is in a nutshell—THE CHANGE MASTERS is all about innovation, entrepreneurs within corporations, and the management structures and climates which foster and support both activities. Because of the wealth of ideas in this book, it would seem that a reasonable approach would be to focus a summary by identifying the two or three best chapters in the book. Here are my nominations. The selections start with Chapter Three—Innovating Against the Grain: Ten Rules for Stifling Innovation. This chapter is nominated for ten obvious reasons, and here are three of them (you will have to read the book for the rest!):

1. "Regard any new idea from below with suspicion—because it's new, and because it's from below.
2. Make decisions to reorganize or change policies in secret,

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and spring them on people unexpectedly. (That also keeps people on their toes.)

3. And above all, never forget that you, the higher-ups, already know everything important about this business" (p. 101).

The next "best chapter" nominee is Chapter Six—Empowerment. This chapter deals with the crucial importance of decentralizing and distributing power within an organization. While this principle is a frequent recipient of lip service, it is in fact a difficult step to accomplish. Before you get the idea that what is meant here is total divestiture of power, Kanter points out that we are really talking about a better "balance." That is to say, power is never fully dispersed, just temporarily loosened. This provides organizational units with autonomy and single-minded focus when they need it without allowing segmentalism. This concept is similar to the "simultaneous loose-tight properties" which Peters and Waterman write about. Kanter suggests that the major empowerment "tools" are open communication, support (through the formation of networks) and decentralized resources. She further suggests that the provision of support for innovation relies upon four principle kinds of integrative devices: job mobility (frequent transfers including lateral moves); employment security (this creates lower resistence to change and a willingness to invest in the future); extensive use of formal team mechanisms (they encourage exchanging support and create contacts for the future); and complex information exchange permitting cross-department access (inter-unit contacts promote the circulation of the three power comodities: information, resources and support). Reading this chapter presents convincing evidence that empowerment is the organization and management skill most talked about and least practiced.

There is one more chapter worthy of designation and accolade: Chapter Nine—Dilemmas of Participation. If in the current "new management" literature the subject of empowerment has been unevenly treated, then the pitfalls of participative management have been largely ignored! This lengthy chapter fills the void created by devotees and enthusiasts who appear to see little problem with decentralization and group decision making. Such is not the case in Kanter's encounter with corporate America. She lists, describes and illustrates the dilemmas associated with beginning a participative approach, the dilemmas of structure and management, the dilemmas of choice, teamwork, linking teams to their environment and, finally, the dilemmas of evaluation. She concludes that participative management works best when it is "well-managed," a term she defines by describing seven key elements. This chapter is extremely helpful on a topic about which discussion is long overdue. I am tempted to say it is THE best.

Having made the above selections, two comments are necessary. First, my endeavor to select the BEST chapters is a dismal failure. It is true that I believe that the three chapters mentioned are, for me, the three best chapters in the book—today! But therein lies the problem. The best chapters in this book are going to change with both person and time. What are MY best may not be YOURS and those which catch our attention and stimulate our thought TODAY may not be the same TOMORROW. There are nine other chapters equally capable of making a significant contribution. Secondly, reading THE CHANGE MASTERS is an exercise in organizational review, analysis, and goal setting. It is not possible to read about both the promises and pitfalls of participative management without thinking about the application of the thoughts and principles. Kanter's observations can help us understand and formulate renewed goals for the utilization of participation and innovation in our organizations. In addition, I suspect we can learn to be both more patient and less permissive with the process. This is a book which needs to be re-read periodically in the life of an administrator who wants to understand organizations and improve the skills necessary to their direction.

GUIDELINES FOR AUTHORS

The Colorado Association for Counseling and Development invites articles for publication in its journal *Awareness.* The deadline for submission of articles is *December 1* of each year. Articles should be sent to:

Anne Roark
Awareness Editor
265 Mohawk Drive
Boulder, Colorado 80303

OR

Daryl Sander
Awareness Editor
School of Education
University of Colorado
Boulder, Colo. 80309

It is important that the journal represent all division of CACD and members are encouraged to submit articles about their work, research, and thought-provoking challenges to the profession. Each member of CACD is important and has something to say and contribute.

In addition, photos are needed for the journal cover for each issue. Please send any photos which you believe would be appropriate. Although no honorarium can be paid, proper credit will be given to each photographer whose work is published.

Typing and Other Requirements

1. Send the original manuscript and two clear copies. The original should be typed on 8½ × 11 nontranslucent white bond. Do not use onionskin or erasable bond.
2. Attach a cover page which provides:
    - title of the article
    - name of the author(s)
    - author's position and place of employment
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3. Style and format should follow the 1983 edition of the *American Psychological Association Publication Manual.*
4. Include an abstract, not to exceed 100 words.
5. Use non-sexist language throughout.
6. Never submit a manuscript which is under consideration by another publication.

Upon publication, each author will receive two personal copies of the journal.

Note: Authors bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures.

Awareness

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Rich Feller, Editor

Photo courtesy of Barbara Cancilla

Editor's Note

After following the highly successful efforts of Anne Roark and Daryl Sander, former editors of *Awareness*, there are few changes anticipated in the future of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development's journal. One can be proud of the many services CACD offers its members. My hope is to build on the strong foundation left by Anne and Daryl as we offer *Awareness* as a professional forum for new ideas, offered by the seasoned writer sharing insight and the first time author translating practice to print.

In this, my first issue as Editor, I've experienced the joy of helping ~~a~~ seasoned professionals attempt their first article as well as encouraged others to submit articles on topics important to our changing profession. While encouraged that more articles are received than can be printed, I'm eager to hear from members considering submission to the next issue, regardless of their experience.

I hope you'll find balance in the types of articles and range in the topics. Additionally, the middle section of this issue will hopefully complement each member's interest in the legislative process. I'm grateful to authors who have dedicated considerable energy to share their thoughts and especially thankful for the many hours the journal's Assistant Editors have given to review articles and assist in preparation of this Spring 1986 issue.

Stay well,

Rich Feller
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Jill Kreutzer
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Colorado State University

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The School Counselor and Students-at-Risk

by Bruce J. Kremer

Young people "at-risk" in our schools, according to Stringer (1973) are "those who—if not found soon enough and sufficiently helped—seem most in danger of becoming...casualties." What an intriguing idea, that it might be possible to locate at-risk youth who seem headed for trouble and to provide them with preventive help. And, if this sort of primary preventive help were to be offered, who better than the school counselor to do it?

Although many school personnel and other authorities (Schulman, Ford, Busk and Kaspar, 1973) suggest that prevention deserves a larger share of school personnel's time and resources, realities suggest that prevention is not really the policy. Even if the school has sound written policy statements, school policy is no more than whatever personnel do as they interact with students. It is these daily interactions which produce the current response, and therefore the constituting policy. And what is the current state of affairs regarding preventive programs for students-at-risk?

Currently, we allow large numbers of at-risk youth to move through our schools without preventive help. Research helps us to understand that these youth are headed for troubled adult lives—lives likely to include psychological difficulties like depression, economic difficulties including unemployment, and social relationship difficulties as well.

Who Are Students-At-Risk?

Following a study of children in the St. Louis County schools, Stringer (1973) concluded that there were three groups of easily identifiable children-at-risk in our schools: (1) the high absentees, (2) the poor or marginal achievers, and (3) the friendless or nearly friendless. She found that it was possible to identify such children as early as the third grade and concluded that, if not helped, most would drop out of school and that the pattern they were developing for dealing with life would make it nearly impossible for them to become effective and healthy adults.

Recent research reported elsewhere (Kremer, 1985) regarding school dropouts confirms that between 25 and 30 percent of our nation's youth fail to graduate from high school. The data also reveal that dropouts are youth who: (1) dislike school and are frequently absent, (2) receive low grades and experience failure in school—that is, they are poor achievers, and (3) have conflicts with school personnel, indicating difficulty with social relationships.

One more dimension of students-at-risk may be sufficient to confirm who they are. Recent concern over the dramatic increase in youth suicide together with the accepted link between depression and suicide has not only underscored the need for early identification and appropriate intervention

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but has also confirmed the image of students-at-risk. A study of suicide in a New Jersey school district reported by Albert and Beck (1975) found that social isolation (being friendless) showed the highest correlation with suicide of any factor. Albert and Beck went on to study seventh and eighth grade students in suburban Philadelphia to determine if youth that young were depressed. They found that 33.3% of these early adolescents fell into the range of moderate to severe depressive symptomalology and that 35% of the sample acknowledged current suicidal ideation. The most serious problems perceived by these students were social (42%); school related (26%); home related (18%); and independence or identity (14%). The authors conclude that it appeared as if interpersonal relationships have a direct bearing on students' self concepts and that low-achieving students get caught in a vicious cycle in which substandard performance and depression reinforce each other.

As has been true with other authorities, Albert and Beck (1975) believe that school should be more concerned and more accountable. They write: "Since the student may spend up to two-thirds of his waking hours in school, it seems reasonable that the school should assume some responsibility for his/her emotional well being through school or professional intervention."

What is the Nature of the Risk?

If our schools fail to take preventive action, what is the predictable result for students-at-risk? Robins (1966) conducted a landmark follow-up study of five hundred adults who thirty years earlier had been patients in child guidance clinics. She concluded that school failures and truancy in childhood were significant predictors of maladjustment in adulthood. Lloyd (1967) found that high absences and low achievement in grade six were significant predictors of high school dropouts.

A recent review of literature on school dropouts (Kremer, 1985) suggests that such youth are headed for a lifetime of economic and social difficulty since dropouts have higher unemployment rates than the general population, are the recipients of more public economic aid, and that when ~~they are~~ employed, ~~it is~~ likely to be in low-skilled jobs indicative of underemployment.

Among youth who attempt suicide, McKenry, Tishler and Christmas (1980) report that poor school performance, poor grades, truancy and discipline problems are common and that relationship problems (not getting along with peers) often precipitate acute depression. They report that breaking up with one's boyfriend or girlfriend, even after dating for only two or three weeks, can trigger deep depression.

Failure of school personnel to identify and help depressed children could lead to the ultimate negative consequence—a life terminated by suicide.

What then is the nature of the risk these youth face? The research appears to suggest that, without intervention, they appear headed toward a maladjusted adult life, an adult life of hardship and unfulfilled potential. Yet it appears that many schools are unwilling to make primary prevention efforts as important as education in the three R's.

The Role of the Counselor

The school counselor concerned about the well-being of *all* youth has both an opportunity and a responsibility regarding students-at-risk. Counselors have the opportunity to provide leadership for the development of primary prevention programs. Counselors also have the responsibility to insist that school boards, principals, teachers and their communities meet the needs of these students-at-risk. For our schools to continue to live with policies and practices which allow between 25 and 30 per cent of all of our youth to remain at-risk is not acceptable!

But how can school counselors begin to act on this opportunity? While teaching children who are friendless "how to be a friend and how to have a friend" is rarely mentioned as part of the curriculum, this author believes it's just as important as learning how to read.

There are no magic answers. But others have developed effective programs to help truant children attend school, to help poor achievers learn more, and yes, even to help friendless children to have friends (see, for example, Durlak, 1977). Failure to accept the challenge to reach out to students-at-risk will surely lead to feelings of "I only wish I had" when one retires and looks back on lost opportunities as is the case of the unknown teacher who in 1946 wrote the following reminiscence.

wrong deck

I TAUGHT THEM ALL

reason
to move to
counseling
helping teachers —
if wanted to
use this

I have taught in high school for ten years.
During that time I have given assignments,
among others, to a murderer, an evangelist,
a pugilist, a thief, and an imbecile.

The murderer was a quiet little boy who
sat on the front seat and regarded me with
pale blue eyes; the evangelist, easily the
most popular boy in the school, had the lead
in the junior play; the pugilist lounged by
the window and let loose at intervals a
raucous laugh that startled even the geraniums;
the thief was a light-hearted Lothario with
a song on his lips; and the imbecile, a soft-
eyed little animal seeking the shadows.

The murderer awaits death in the state
penetentiary; the evangelist has lain a year
now in the village churchyard; the pugilist lost
an eye in a brawl in Hong Kong; the thief, by
standing on tiptoe can see the windows of my
room from the county jail; and the once gentle-
eyed little moron beats his head against a
padded wall in the state asylum.

All those pupils once sat in my room, sat and
looked at me gravely across worn desks. I must
have been a great help to those pupils—I
taught them the rhyming scheme of the
Elizabethan sonnet and how to diagram a
complex sentence.

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(1973, April).

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On Being a Counselor: Some Perilous Paradoxes

by Judith A. Praul and I. David Welch

The authors were talking recently about problems encountered by graduates when they take their first counseling position. Our discussion had to do with the notion that counseling is one of those professions that is characterized by stress and burnout. Yet, a paradox emerges. The counselor who is burned(ing) out is sometimes advised to seek retraining as a method of coping with burnout stress. The paradox is that frequently the very retraining recommended is in itself stressful. That beginning paradox led us to talk with other colleagues and students returning for advanced degrees and additional coursework. The outcome was the discovery of a number of other paradoxes, ironies and dilemmas faced by counselors. We have listed several below with some discussion of each. It is not our intention to claim that we have exhausted the list or to suggest "cures" for these paradoxes of the counseling profession. It is our intention to bring them to the reader's awareness so personal solutions might be created and examined.

Paradox 1 — Training Vs. Employer Expectation

Beginning with the examination of the training program expectations for counselors at the master's level and above, it seems clear that most programs emphasize one-to-one counseling. This emphasis is apparent when examining content areas as well as the practical experience component. In courses such as counseling theories and personality theories, the works of notable theorists are presented and then applied to individual therapy. Most practica focus on one-to-one counseling with volunteer clients and the supervision of the counselors-in-training almost totally uses the one-to-one model. Criticizing this model is not the intent, but it is important to recognize the paradox many counselors face in employment settings when one-to-one counseling may not be an integral part of the job description. This paradox may be especially true for school counselors. One of the authors was employed in a public school system where one-to-one counseling of a personal nature was strongly discouraged. It was instead expected that the counselor do scheduling, quasi-administrative duties and be heavily involved in scholarship searches and awards. Other school counselors encounter a number of non-counseling duties such as attendance, discipline, accountability committees and so forth. We believe this author's experience is not far removed from many school counselors' experience today. While the counselor in a mental health setting will certainly be expected to be involved in one-to-one counseling, there are other expectations as well. For example, while working at a mental health

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center counselors may be expected to become heavily involved in various fund raising activities, appear before various community boards, city councils and county commissioners. Additionally, an agency counselor might be expected to provide community workshops and work with local school systems in providing educational workshops and parent training. These activities are necessary. They might, however, not be activities that training programs address in any significant way.

The result is a problem of role confusion in which counselors are expected to perform a number of activities for which they are untrained and view as totally or relatively unrelated to their expectations and preparation. Thus counselors are faced with the dilemma of clinging to the expectations generated by the training program, perhaps resulting in conflict and job insecurity, or to conform to job expectations. Conforming to job expectations that don't match professional preparation and career objectives may result in confusion, frustration, dissatisfaction and burnout. The ultimate dilemma may be deciding whether to stay in or get out of counseling.

Paradox 2 — Confidentiality

It might be important here to briefly make a distinction between confidentiality and privileged communication. Confidentiality is an ethical concept; privileged communication is a legal concept. While all counselors are expected to follow the ethical considerations of confidentiality, it is not true that all counselors are protected under the privileged communication statutes. In fact, no public school counselors in Colorado enjoy privileged communication and, presently, only counselors who are licensed psychologists, or under the supervision of someone who does enjoy privileged communication, have this protection. This is an important distinction since it is not privileged communication which ordinarily creates problems for counselors; it is the problem of ethical confidentiality.

Several problems generated by confidentiality in both school and agency settings. In schools, if the counselor meets with a child upon the recommendation of a teacher, it is not unusual for the teacher to want to know something of what went on with the child. This presents a problem of confidentiality for the counselors since a teacher is not considered a person who has any special claim upon information gained in a counseling session (as a parent might, for example). Yet, the counselor must find some way of answering the teacher's questions (or the questions of the principal) about a particular student without violating the confidence of the student. Another difficult situation frequently occurs in the teachers' lounge where teachers routinely discuss student progress and behavior. Teachers might turn to the counselor and ask for an opinion or information. If, in fact, that student has seen the counselor privately, then the counselor is ethically asked not to even acknowledge that the student has been in for counseling. However, not to respond is to convey the message that the counselor is not doing the job and seems "out-of-it" to the teachers. We have the paradox of the counselor honoring professional ethics and yet the result is often antagonism and isolation.

The problem of finding someone to talk to about the burdens of the day is another problem all counselors must face. If one is in a relationship with another person we often unburden ourselves to that roommate, spouse or partner. The problem here is that confidentiality prevents such unburdening regarding clients. The best one may be able to do is to speak generally about a problem encountered at work. One of the authors remembers a situation in which friends called wanting counseling concerning their upcoming divorce. Because of the problem of dual relationships and closeness the couple was referred to another counselor. Here was a counselor experiencing personal pain and unable to share it with anyone significantly close. It is just this sort of dilemma with which counselors contend. The paradox is that in honoring our commitment to confidentiality we may end up isolated, personally burdened, or antagonizing our friends, colleagues and loved ones.

Paradox 3 — Supervision

Counselors seem to be in a double bind regarding supervision. Most counselors recognize the need for supervision/observation. They acknowledge that under supervision skills improve, methods are challenged and new skills developed. Most counselors not only recognize the need for supervision, they actively seek it. The problem is that there is a simultaneous need and a fear of observation/supervision. That fear is attached to the fear of being evaluated. Thus, counselors have both a need/desire for supervision and a fear of it.

Counselors recognize the need for supervision because they recognize that it is one way to improve skills. This is important because new issues are confronting counselors. One need not be around schools, or work in an agency, for long before one sees problems barely addressed in training programs. A counselor may be expected to have knowledge of specific treatments for eating disorders, suicide, abortion, divorce reactions or substance abuse. Certainly, one way of gaining knowledge of treatment recommendations for these specific concerns comes from supervision. Counselors are dedicated people who want to improve their skills, competencies and qualifications. Supervision is a primary method of doing this.

The fear of supervision/observation stems from the fear that the observation may be used to determine such things as retention, promotion and salary. Reality dictates that evaluations may have nothing to do with competence but may be tied to personal relationships, social skills, conformity or some other external factor. Certainly, it is possible to have actions misunderstood especially by outside observers or evaluations who hold an opposing or different theoretical orientation.

The paradox is that counselors simultaneously value and fear supervision. And, as we have seen in the discussion above, both points of view may be valid.

Paradox 4 — Competency

This is a complex issue. It stems from an ethical consideration that one is not supposed to try to provide counseling in areas in which one is not considered to be competent. The problem arises in two distinct ways. The first is in the expectations of the institution in which the counselor works. The second has to do with the geographical setting in which the counselor works.

The institution in which a counselor works may rely heavily upon intakes from the community for financial support. A counselor may, in the course of a month or so, see persons who have a number of different complaints. A counselor in a mental health center might see people who suffer from eating disorders, who are involved in child abuse or who are suffering through a divorce. Those people might be adults or children. They may choose self-destructive solutions such as chemical abuse or suicide. They may be the victim or the perpetrator. Without speaking for all counselors, the authors feel they are unqualified to handle, because of our lack of expertise, each and every one of these problems. One might expect that most counselors are not prepared to do this either. Yet, and this is the problem, if one works in an institution that is driven by the number of client intakes, there is a certain amount of pressure to work with all clients and not to refer them outside the agency.

The second problem lies with the ethical issues themselves. Do counselors advocate not working with persons who present problems in which the counselor has no specific expertise. This may not be true when one is the "only show in town." When counselors work in a rural setting, they may be the only one around to provide services of any sort. This may be true for school counselors or mental health counselors who are widely disbursed across a large geographical area (Colorado is a primary example of this—especially on the Western Slope and on the Eastern Plains). These counselors are placed in the difficult situation of denying help or doing the best one can, given recognized shortcomings. The paradox is, of course, that the considerations for ethical behavior are different in different situations and are written as if this were not the case.

Paradox 5 — Effectiveness

Often, counselors are asked to justify their existence based on whether or not they are doing any good. In a word, they are asked to be accountable. Of course, this is a problem with which the entire profession struggles and one for which no universally agreed upon solution is evident.

The dilemma for the individual counselor is determining whether or not the client is being helped. What shall be used to determine counselor success? How does one know if what they are doing is actually helping? What signpost can be used to determine if progress is being made? These are all good questions, yet to the authors knowledge there are no universally accepted answers. In fact, these questions raise serious philosophical and theoretical issues for us as counselors. For example, who should be determining success—the counselor, the client, an outside observer? What sort of measurement is to be used—statistical, phenomenological, professional judgement? Here is the dilemma we see for the individual counselor. First, if the counselor determines what constitutes a successful outcome, the counselor has in effect taken the problem away from the client and dictated the treatment strategy for the desired outcome. This seems most antiethical to counseling. However, if the counselor does not have expected outcomes, there is no good indicator that the counseling is progressing effectively, other than subjective feelings.

These considerations of effectiveness have to do with the relationship between the counselor and the client. However, sometimes counselor effectiveness may be determined by persons uninvolved in the counseling in any direct way or with little if any knowledge of the counseling process. They may use inappropriate criteria for evaluating such as whether or not the counselor is a "team player," how few problems reach the administrator or some other irrelevant consideration.

Counselors sometimes end up relying upon feedback from clients. The problem is that feedback does not come in any systematic way from either satisfied or disgruntled clients. Satisfied customers may be ones who have remained comfortable in counseling and thus not profitted in any great way. Conversely, dissatisfied clients may be ones who have been challenged. The dilemma, for the individual counselor, is that no matter which strategy he or she selects for evaluating outcomes there are serious objections to it.

Paradox 6 — Values

What to do with the counselor's values in the counseling process is another complex issue facing counselors. We are reminded of the turmoil present in society today. One criticism is that a strong value system is not being imparted to children. Certain belief systems see it as objectionable that counselors do not advocate a particular value system when working with clients. For example, in marriage and family counseling some would be upset if the counselor did not take a pro-marriage stance and work diligently to keep the couple together. Or, if counselors are "neutral" with clients regarding abortion decisions, they are often subject to severe critism. Counselors seem faced with a choice between indoctrination and valuelessness. Neither is appropriate, yet the profession gives counselors little concrete guidance in the resolution of this dilemma. Counselors seem to be continually "under the gun" from the community-at-large. If they do give advice, they are criticized for the advice they give. The press frequently reminds us of "advice" given by "counselors" which is considered stupid, harmful and/or unreasonable. It seems, so far as the public is concerned, counselors are "damned if they do; damned if they don't."

Counselors, like every other person in any profession, hold values that are important and meaningful and that direct their lives. The problem of when, how, where and in what capacity to share our values continues to constitute a dilemma for counselors.

Paradox 7 — Personal Goals Vs. Institutional Goals for Clients

One of the authors has a friend who, as a former military psychologist, was complaining about a problem he faced. He was confronted with a situation in which his responsibility, as seen by the military, was merely to return the soldier to duty. The psychologist was conflicted because sometimes he would encounter situations in which the problem was not with the individual soldier but with the company commander or with the rules and regulations or with the system itself. It did not matter, however, if the problem was with the company commander or with the system, the solution was always the same—return the soldier to duty, or, perhaps, get the soldier out of the military. It is not uncommon for some to think the school counselor's responsibility is merely to "fix" the child so he or she can return to the classroom. What if the problem is the teacher, the parents, the janitor or the principal? This might be a problem faced by a prison counselor or counselors who are employed by a corporation. It doesn't make any difference. The "bottom line" is that in a number of different settings it is the client who must make the accommodation.

The paradox is that counselors are trained and prepared to deal confidentially with clients and value clients' needs above institutional regulations. Yet, in many settings (schools, military, prisons, corporations) counselors may be placed in situations of, if not divided loyalties, irreconcilable expectations. The individual counselor may be concerned with the good of the individual client, while the institution may be concerned with the overall mission of the institution and view a struggling individual as detrimental and thus expendable.

Paradox 8 — Status

Let's explore some cultural assumptions for a moment. Consider success. How is it perceived? Formulas might include: money equals success; status equals success; success equals respect. This seems to us to be a problem for counselors. While counselors may have a strong internal feeling of self-worth, and view themselves as important contributors to society, these feelings may not be shared by society at large. In fact, with regard to money and status, the counseling profession does not rank very high on the success ladder. If one were to consider schools as an example, the authors feel confident that most counselors would verify that their position does not carry the respect given to the principal or the teachers. One could speculate that if given the choice between maintaining a counselor or hiring another teacher, teachers would vote for another teacher to lighten their load. Counselors might very well be considered luxuries of rich districts. We all know when the money gets tight, school counselors get nervous.

Counselors are a group of people who are dedicated to what they do, who seem to like it overall, yet put up with long hours, relatively low pay, not much status and are left with the question of why they do it! (Society might conclude that they are stupid!) Another understanding that should be stated here is that the general definitions of success (money, status) may not apply as directly to teachers and counselors since they seem to possess a strong internal commitment to these occupations which may not exist in others. We believe this is the case in counseling. Nevertheless, it is stressing to be involved in work one values within a system in which the normal signs of prestige are denied.

Paradox 9 — Self Criticism

We are trained, if not formally, then by our culture, to engage in a certain amount of self evaluation. It may become paradoxical when taken to the extreme. If we do engage in self criticism, there is the possibility that we become anxious and ineffective in our jobs. We can become so concerned with our desire to do well that performance suffers. When we are engaged in self examination, it is possible that our level of risk taking is reduced. Self criticism can get in the way of increasing our knowledge, skills and competencies.

There is a corresponding danger at the other end of the continuum. If we do not examine our self skills, there is the danger of becoming complacent. If we do not examine our professional skills, there is the danger that we will not increase our knowledge, skills and competencies. This is a real paradox. If we are too self critical, we may not increase our knowledge and if we are not sufficiently self critical, we may not increase our knowledge! We are left with a dilemma of how much self criticism is good. We are also left without an answer.

Paradox 10 — Professional Enrichment

What started this process for the authors was an idea that counseling is a stressful profession. Stress leads to burnout. One of the "cures" for burnout is retraining/retooling. Yet, the paradox is that retraining can in itself create stress.

If we consider the reasons that retraining is stressful, the first thing we think of is that more often than not retraining is tied to credit. In order to receive credit one must be evaluated. Evaluation is stressful.

Another thought is that while professional enrichment is expected by employers, the individual counselor often must get it done after work, on weekends and vacations. The system demands continuing education, yet frequently provides no time or funds for such activities. These activities are expected to occur during the times we often use for re-vitalizing and "regrouping." Additionally, counselors involved in retraining are sometimes not viewed as colleagues with valuable insights, skills and talents, but are expected to be mere recipients of the expertise of the teacher. In other words, counselors returning for additional training may suffer a lack of respect and appreciation. It is also entirely possible that the preplanned and prepackaged curriculum of training institutions may not correspond to the real needs of individual counselors. Thus, while seeking professional renewal counselors may be forced into courses that they do not want and do not need.

Counselors seek professional renewal because it is expected, needed and desired. They also may view it as a potential source of stress reduction. The paradox is that it may well be another source of stress in the life of a counselor.

Summary

We have presented some paradoxes, dilemmas and problems that confront those of us in the counseling profession. These include problems of role expectation vs. role demands, confidentiality, supervision, competency, effectiveness, values, personal goals vs. institutional goals, status, self criticism and professional enrichment. We have presented these only in an attempt to bring them into awareness. It is hoped that awareness may result in personally developed solutions for individual counselors. It is in no way intended to suggest that the list presented here is exhaustive or complete. Certainly, it is clear that ours is a profession filled with paradoxes, dilemmas and ironies.

The Classroom Management Game: An In-Service Activity for Educators

by David Lemire

This article describes the Classroom Management Game (CMG), an inservice activity for educators developed under the auspices of Project TEACH. The CMG is designed to help teachers and counselors understand and implement the principles and methods of Individual Psychology and Individual Education. The intent of the CMG is to help teachers sharpen their professional skills in the areas of motivation and discipline in the classroom.

Introduction

The Classroom Management Game (CMG) was prepared under the auspices of a mini-grant from the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development (CACD). Project TEACH, the project funded by the CACD, asked teachers to conceptualize and develop instructional methods and practices associated with Individual Psychology (Adler, 1927; Dreikurs, 1968; Dreikurs, Grunwald and Pepper, 1971) and Individual Education (Corsini, 1984; Dubrovich, 1985; Ignas; Mastroianni, 1984). The intent of the CMG is to help teachers sharpen their professional teaching and management skills in the areas of motivation and discipline in the classroom. This purpose is consistent with the uses of simulations as teaching tools identified by this author in other articles (Lemire and Hildreth, 1976; 1983).

Background

The Classroom Management Game (CMG) developed from the work of a number of teachers in the Uinta County School District. This group of teachers felt that the concept of "classroom discipline" was too limiting. They felt that "classroom management" was a more accurate and inclusive concept from which to expand their instructional and managerial skills. The particular focus of the group of teachers was the incorporation of the principles and methods of Individual Psychology, the psychology of Alfred Adler (1927), Rudolf Dreikurs (1968), Ray Corsini (1984), and Tom Edgar (1986), within the concept of classroom management. Thus, the reader will find references to articles on instruction and classroom managment by proponents of Individual Psychology referred to throughout the game description. The specific purpose of this "game" or simulation is to develop understanding about the constellation of knowledge, attitudes and skills which, when utilized in the classroom, will result in positive classroom management. Classroom

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management includes more than discipline. Classroom management is the organization of the classroom environment in order to facilitate direct positive student learning in *both* cognitive *and* affective domains. The essence of this model is that clear organization and understanding of student needs and student motivation tends to produce success in school and interpersonal success. When students *feel* successful they tend to *be* successful and classroom management tends to be easier and more productive.

The Rules

The rules of play for the Classroom Management Game are relatively simple. Up to six players need the CMG gameboard and the other items used in the game (such as moving pieces, dice and question cards). Play is started by a roll of the dice or a spin of the wheel. There are six "teachers" which are used as playing pieces and moved around the gameboard. Each player is then to follow the instructions on the gameboard. The first player to finish (move to the last space on the gameboard) "wins" the game. Each player to finish is awarded a mirth degree, just like in college.

Instructional Sequence

First, each student/teacher takes an assessment of learning styles. For purposes of instruction, two such assessment instruments have been developed by the author. The first instrument is called the SLIMI (The Student Learning and Interpreting Modality Instrument) and is a quick and easy assessment of visual, auditory or kinesthetic-tactile learning preference (Lemire and Stepnewski-In Press). The second instrument which has been developed to assess learning style is called te HILI (How I Learn Inventory)(Lemire, 1985). The HILI is used to assess the stules of learning identified by Gregorc (1982); i.e., Concrete Sequential, Abstract Sequential, Abstract Random, Concrete Random). Assessing learning style is important from the point of view of Individual Education because it reflects the *individual* learning orientation of the student. Since the essence of Individual Education is creating a stimulating and positive learning environment, helping the student relate successfully to the learning tasks is the function of the learning style assessment. The end product of the CMG is a classroom which has an environment which is conducive to learning in cognitive and affective areas.

Once the student/teacher understands both the concept of learning styles and the importance of the individual's learning style, s/he then needs to read and study the materials presented in the appendices of the CMG Handbook. Many of the questions asked while playing the game are taken from these articles and papers. The student/teacher needs to pay particular attention to the articles on mistaken and constructive goals for both teachers and students. Finally, the game can be played by up to six students/teachers.

Questions

One hundred questions are provided with the game in order to begin play. These questions are based primarily on materials reflecting the principles and methods of Individual Psychology and Individual Education. However, other viewpoints representing the research on classroom management are represented (including Bloom, 1982; Jones, 1983; Hutchins, et al., 1984; and Squires, et al., 1984). In addition, the teachers playing the game are encouraged to write their own questions, based on current thinking and research into classroom management by authors such as Glass (in Hutchins, et al., 1984). Examples of the kinds of questions asked are: #1, "There is clear agreement among researchers and teacher trainers as to what constitutes effective classroom management," (False); #2, "Different students respond to different classroom environments," (True); #35, "Models of discipline in the classroom rarely include elements of self-discipline," (True); and #85, "Using behavioral methods in the classroom means that you punish students whenever possible," (False). The object of the question is multiple. First, teachers are helped to learn knowledge and comprehension level information (in terms of Bloom's taxonomy)(in Gronlund, 1971). The game also helps teachers think in terms of higher level cognitive functions (application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation) by focusing awareness of real issues which face classroom teachers. Examples of this kind of critical thinking would be, "Which of the mistaken goals of children is the student using and what can I do to positively counteract its negative influence?" As the teachers become familiar with the game, there are many opportunities for higher-order thinking skills development.

Conclusion

The purpose of this article has been to describe the Classroom Management Game (CMG), which is an in-service activity or pre-service activity for educators. The background and rules for the CMG were presented. It is hoped that the use of such simulation "games" will help teachers sharpen their professional skills in the area of classroom organization. In addition, this model of classroom management reflects the principles and methods of Individual Psychology and Individual Education, as proposed by such authors as Alfred Adler (1927), Rudolf Dreikurs (1968), and Tom Edgar (1986). Educators wanting more information on the CMG could contact the author at the address listed or Lance Huffman at Manitou Springs High School, Manitou Springs, CO 80829.

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Family Influence: A Key Factor Affecting Career Decisions and Career Counseling

by Jill C. Kreutzer and Mary Demaio Brouillette

Theoretical Perspectives

Roe (1956) has addressed the family influence on career decision making perhaps more than most theorists. Her research focuses on the relationship of differential parental attitudes and the resulting parent-child interactions. Depending on whether the parental attitude is warm or cold and overprotective, accepting, or rejecting, the development which occurs during early childhood will nuture attitudes which direct an individual toward occupational preferences toward or not toward people.

An Adlerian approach was used by McKelvie and Friedland (1978) who incorporated a family framework perspective to describe the influences of the life goal of an individual as this relates to career choice. These authors attempt to show that an individual's career interest is influenced by the values, roles, and family constellation pattern in the individual's family of origin.

Using a social systems approach, Opsipow (1973) discusses the influence of the environment, cultural expectations, social class, socio-economic status, race, sex, and family background as factors related to career decision making. Opsipow stresses that these factors are often overlooked when applying only psychological theories associated with career development. This would appear to be especially significant when counseling with monorities and the economically disadvantaged.

Bratcher (1982) has integrated psychological and sociological perspectives when presenting career decision making process. Family systems theory maintains that the family functions in such a way that each member affects and is affected by the others. More specifically, families operate on certain rules and myths passed on from generation to generation. These unspoken expectations can prescribe and predict behavior through the establishment and maintenance of roles, beliefs, and values of family members. Like any organization, the family uses this socialization process to maintain equilibrium or homeostasis and invokes family rules when balance is threatened. Bratcher contends that these factors may be the most important variables to be considered when children within a family begin to make career choices. These factors will determine the degree of separation and personal autonomy granted to children as they attempt to formulate their thinking about work and what they want to do with their lives.

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Emperical Perspectives

While most of the theoretical literature tends to overlook the role of the family in influencing career decision making, the idea that the family is the single most important influence on career decision making is documented in the developmental literature (Atwater, 1983; Birk & Blimline, 1984).

Most studies reflect that adolescents list their parents as being responsible for their career choices. For example, in an early study of 76,000 boys entering college, Werts (1968) found that through direct and indirect encouragement fathers influenced their sons to enter careers related to their own. This appeared to be expecially true for those who were in professional, medical and technical fields. Similar results were found in a longitudinal study of boys at 15 and 25 (Bell, 1969) which indicated that fathers were the most frequently mentioned career models at both ages. It was also found that young men with the highest vocational adjustments were those who had strong father models at age 15.

While the major body of research has focused on white males, work specifically looking at females had been fairly consistent with regard to parental influences on career choice. For example, from a review of the literature, Hoffman (1974) summarized that girls with high career aspirations and achievements tend to be daughters of high achieving mothers who encouraged independence and career orientation in their daughters. However, Vierstein and Hogan (1975) found that high achieving females are more likely to match their father's career profiles, while low achieving females are more likely to match their mother's career profiles. More recently attention had been paid to factors influencing females to enter non-traditional occupations. Again the impact and role modeling of both parents appears to be an important factor. Auster and Auster (1981) found that females choosing non-traditional occupational roles often had mothers who worked in non-traditional occupations and fathers who provided an achievement role model and who served as a supportive source of occupational identification. It is interesting that these authors found the support and influence of vocational counselors to be negligible.

In a study of occupational aspirations, expectations, and career maturity of black and white male and female tenth graders, McNair and Brown (1983) found that parental influence was the only predictor for all but white males and was highly related to the career aspirations of all youth surveyed. Parental influences were also primary significant predictors of occupational expectations. This study is important because most investigations of career maturity, occupational aspirations and expectations have excluded females and minorities.

Predicting the career choice attitudes of rural Black, white and Native American high school students, Lee's (1984) research focused on indications that rural workers lag behind their urban counterparts in vocational development. Of particular interest was the finding that parental influence and self-concept interact with ethnicity as predictors of attitudes about career choice. It appeared that parental influence has a greater impact on the attitudes about career choice of Black and Native American students than it did on white students in this study.

Although literature strongly supports the idea that parents significantly influence their children's occupational decisions, little is known about parent's attitudes about children's career development or about the role parents perceive for themselves in this developmental process. Birk and Blimline (1984) have recently attempted to study this question with parents of kindergarten, third and fifth grade children. Their findings suggest that parents tend to be somewhat restrictive in their fantasies about their children's future occupations. Results of this study also reflect that parents tend to encourage certain sex role stereotypes when thinking about their children's occupational choices. Many responses indicated that parents had little awareness of the early determinants of career choice or of their role as "primary career development facilitators."

The literature reviewed in this paper is but a sampling that supports the idea that parents are powerful influences on the career choice attitudes of children. The relationship between parental influence and career choices of children has too often been ignored by vocational and career counselors. For example, Frank Ross (1974), in *Elementary School Careers Education: A Humanistic Model*, stresses the importance of preparation for parenthood as an aspect of career education but does not mention that inclusion of parents in any aspect of career education or counseling. The exclusion of the family is also evident in Zunker's *Career Counseling: Applied Concepts of Life Planning* (1981). This is surprising since the latter is a widely used textbook for the preparation of career development educators and counselors. In light of this data, suggestions are offered for the integration of the family in career development education and counseling.

Implications

Based on their work and that of others, Birk and Blimline (1984) strongly recommend active involvement of parents in children's career decision making programs. School counselors can play a significant role in helping parents become partners in this process. Parents of school-age children need accurate information and assistance in developing non stereotypic attitudes about careers and career planning. This might be accomplished through utilizing group meetings, workshops and access to resources, as well as providing opportunities for individual counseling for children and their parents. However, Birk and Blimline warn that this process must begin with a confrontation and broadening of parental attitudes concerning possible career alternatives for their children.

This theme is reinforced by McNair and Brown (1983) from their research with Black and white adolescents. They suggest that parents need to be aware of how they are influential in determining career expectations and aspirations in their children. Additionally, parents need strategies for improving the quality of their influence as well as information and resources on how to facilitate development and exploration of interests and attitudes. Lee (1984) stressed that counselors of ethnically diverse rural youth should consult with parents to better understand how ethnic differences affect parental impact on various aspects of career development.

Bratcher (1982) suggests that attempting to understand the influence of the family on career selection may represent the missing link in understanding the many variables influencing career choice. Because these influences often operate beyond the level of conscious awareness, thus existing as unspoken family mores, the career counselor may need to be both active and directive in helping the older adolescent or adult client understand the power of this influence. Clients may also need help examining patterns of reactions to the family influencing systems. Clients will need to explore the pressures, expectations, and their roles in these systems. With this awareness, clients can be helped to accept responsiblity for their career choices and decisions. Clients will also be able to reduce other-directed thinking and shift their energy to themselves. Thus Bratcher (1982) sees the counselor's responsibility to help clients decide what they want without experiencing guilt about betraying the family's expectations.

Conclusions

In examining the role of the family in career choice decisions, one asks why the influence of family has been neglected as an important element in career development counseling. Evidence to support the understanding of this influence is there. Perhaps it is as Zingard (1983) suggests, that many counselors have omitted the study of family relationships and family therapy from their professional preparation, feeling this may have little benefit from counseling strategies with individuals. It may also be due to the lack of understanding of childhood socialization factors and the power of such influences on adolescent and adult development.

It would seem that there is much work to be done in helping counselors understand the role of the family in career development decisions. But it would seem also that counselor educators must first gain an understanding of this if they are to stress its importance in counselor training. Secondly, research is needed to determine effective means by which parents can be integrated into career education and counseling at elementary and secondary levels. Thirdly, post-secondary counselors and those in private practice who work with adults involved in career change decisions need to understand family systems theory and its role in career decision making. It appears that education and research are needed in terms of counseling strategies which include the family influences on the career decision making process. With this insight, career counselors will hopefully begin to develop more effective strategies to implement developmentally based career guidance services for both youth and adults.

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Colorado Association for Counseling and Development

Legislative Advocacy Guide for Licensure in Colorado

Licensure Information • How to's • Legislators • Resources

This special section was prepared for your information and use by the licensure committee of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development. It was designed to be separated from the Awareness Journal and retained for future use.

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Some questions to ask yourself...

Have your support systems increased as your job responsibilities have increased?

How much is another professional paid to supervise your work?

What other professions will take over your job in the future?

How much has your legal liability increased in recent years?

What are the limits on your ability to respond professionally to increased societal needs?

What mental health professions has the Colorado Legislature deemed important enough to license?

What is Licensure?

Licensure is the means by which state governments legally define and regulate the practice of a profession. Until 1976, when the Virginia state legislature successfully passed a counseling licensure law, there was no legal definition of counseling in the states or statutory regulation of the title or function of counselors. By June, 1985, legislatures in Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Florida, Idaho, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia had passed laws creating counselor licensure boards. This success was largely due to the work of many pro-active professional counselors in those states.

Counselor licensure is one of several kinds of professional endorsement by which a counselor may obtain a credential attesting to his or her qualifications to practice, based on knowledge, competence and ethical conduct. The most common other form of credentialing is certification. In the counseling profession. NCC is a generic form of certification, with several specialty counseling areas available, including career, rehabilitation and mental health counseling. School counselor endorsement on a teaching certificate is also a form of certification. While such certifications are extremely valuable to the profession in many ways, they do not provide the legal recognition necessary to enable the counseling profession to meet the challenges arising in our society today. Legal recognition was requested by and granted to social workers, nurses, psychologists and physicians by the Colorado legislature. Colorado professional counselor licensure is necessary for equity with these already licensed mental health groups.

WHY Licensure for Professional Counselors?

Professional counseling is a unique specialty within the broad field of mental health services that focuses on the strengths and potentials of individuals. Professional counselors are committed to facilitating human growth and development through individual and group counseling, educational procedures, consultation and research.

There is no legal definition of professional counseling in Colorado. Literally anyone may claim the title "counselor." There is no machinery for identifying qualified practitioners, for enforcing professional standards, or for holding practitioners accountable for their actions. Some examples of current problems are as follows:

1. Counselors are being denied employment in the human, health and social services because they are not appropriately licensed. For example, a recent survey of members of the Association of Counselor Educators and Supervisors found that 70 members, despite their training at the doctoral level in counseling, had been denied employment as professional counselors in a clinic or agency because of Medicaid or other insurance coverage requirements for licensed service providers.
2. It is difficult to document unethical practices and unsatisfactory services. There is a need to establish a mechanism of recourse for persons who have been subjected to counseling services that have endangered their welfare.
3. Counselors are being discriminated against by the requirement for supervision by other professions for insurance purposes.
4. Increasing numbers of psychologists, social workers, and nurses are being assigned the traditional functions of school counselors.
5. Counselors are systematically being excluded from HMO's, PPO's, and othe new forms of professional practice.

If Colorado passes a licensure law, the profession of counseling would be legally defined. This would mean that our right to practice our profession, to do the things we are trained to do, would be legally protected. It would further mean that untrained or unscrupulous practitioners would be prohibited from calling themselves professional counselors. A licensing board would be established by the law to execute the regulatory activities. Professional standards for preparation and for ethical practice would have the force of law.

A licensure law would:

1. protect the public's right to be served
2. protect the public's freedom of choice
3. enable the public to identify qualified practitioners
4. provide the public with legal recourse

5. enable the public to make more informed decisions
6. prevent misuse of the title "professional counselor"
7. provide more options for referrals, especially for school counselors
8. encourage cooperation among professional mental health providers
9. more appropriately address minority and women's needs, both of the clients and counselors
10. increase the opportunities for meeting the needs of rural Colorado
11. enhance the professional identity, credibility and autonomy of professional counselors.

Licensure is the vehicle that will enable professional counselors to assume their rightful place as a recognized group within the helping professions.

Current Status

CACD has had an active state licensure committee which has worked in cooperation with many other mental health provider groups in Colorado over the past few years. On Feb. 5, 1985, for the first time, our Hume and Dambman sponsored House Bill 1104 received an attentive and sincere hearing before the House State Affairs Committee. Having our bill postponed indefinitely seemed less painful for us when we learned of the procedures and opportunities that House Bill 1087 provides. This bill set up the Sunrise/-Sunset procedures, including appointment of the significant interim Sunrise/-Sunset Committee which is established for two years.

A big step forward was taken in behalf of licensing Colorado counselors when CACD testified before the Sunrise/Sunset committee on September 6, 1985. We provided the committee with pages of background information, including our bill, ethical standards and numerous other documents to aid their understanding of our position and needs. This interim committee then listened actively to us, asking many questions and sharing insight and concern. We were encouraged by their support and their openness in expressing frustration with the status of licensing in Colorado.

We are currently working very closely with our contacts at the Department of Regulatory Agencies (DORA), with persons at the Legislative Council, with our legislators and,of course, with our CACD leadership to determine our next steps. At this writing (Dec. 85) we are not sure if we will be submitting a bill in the '86 legislature session but we will be preparing for additional testimony. Both psychologists and social workers are scheduled for the sunset review in 1986.

We have always advocated a comprehensive act for Colorado because we believe strongly that those practitioners who meet the education and experience provisions should be able to be licensed under one bill, if they choose. We have worked many years directly and indirectly with licensed and unlicensed mental health groups in Colorado in order to produce the least restrictive and the most comprehensive act possible. Often some groups will argue for more restrictions rather than fewer. We see our philosophy and proposal as compatible with the spirit and philosophy of the Sunrise/Sunset Committee.

What You Can Do

First and foremost, determine to learn about and to use systems in order to affect changes that you know to be in the best interests of our clients. Our clients are people who can benefit from the best counseling and advocacy skills that we as professional counselors can provide! We hope every counselor chooses to be politically active, for choosing *not* to be could be hazardous.

We will be informing you of our specific requests as we progress through the legislative maze this spring and summer. Our expectation is that you will meet your legislators, learn about their concerns, educate yourself about licensure and insurance practices so that you can respond appropriately to our requests for action.

The following pages include specific information for guiding your attention and action. Please read on, colleagues, for this process and the outcomes are more serious matters than most of us realize. Do not be afraid to think and to act; we need to learn new ways of thinking.

You Can Be Involved in the Legislative Process

You can participate in the legislative process by becoming better educated and more knowledgeable about the process. The following information is designed to help you as you become more involved in the democratic process.

The General Assembly

The General Assembly, the official name of the Colorado Legislature, consists of two sessions. The first regular session is in odd-numbered years: the second regular session in even-numbered years.

In the even-numbered years, the short session, the General Assembly considers only statutes concerning the raising of revenue and making appropriations, plus those matters designated in writing by the Governor within the first ten days of the session.

Memorials, resolutions and concurrent resolutions have no such limitations.

In odd-numbered years, the General Assembly may consider legislation on any topic.

There are 35 Senators and 65 Members of the House of Representatives. Involvement on the legislative process continues throughout the year. Besides the formal session of the legislature, which lasts approximately five months, many committees meet during the interim for study and to hold numerous hearings for proposed legislation.

Telephone Numbers

LEGISLATURE		HOUSE	
Bill Room	866-2340	House Republicans	866-2932
Bill Information	866-3055	House Democrats	866-2904

EXECUTIVE		SENATE	
Governor (Richard Lamm)	866-2471	Senate Republicans	866-4866
Lieutenant Governor	866-2087	Senate Democrats	866-4865

LEGISLATIVE SERVICES	
Joint Budget & Committee	866-2061
Legislative Drafting Office	866-2045
Revisor of Statutes	866-2043
Legislative Council	866-3521

Committees

Standing Committees or Committee of Reference are a group of legislators who meet during the session to consider bills in a particular area of legislation. Each legislator may serve on several Standing Committees. Committee amendments to a bill must be accepted by the full house before becoming a part of the bill.

Legislative Interim Committees consider areas selected by the General Assembly for study between sessions. Any legislation recommended by an interim committee goes through the same process as any other bill.

Joint Budget Committee (JBC) is the fiscal and budget review agency of the General Assembly. The committee prepares, for each session, a budget of the general fund (tax monies and other state revenues not already earmarked.) This budget is known as the "long bill."

Joint Budget Committee:
Senators Dodge, Chair (R); Beatty (R); Beng (D); Representatives Kirscht, Vice Chair (R); Gillis (R); Webb (D).

House Education Committee:
Scherer, Chair (R); Herzog, Vice Chair (R); M.C. Bird (R); Dambman (R); Hamlin (R); P. Hernandez (D); Hume (R); Knox (D); Pankey (R); Reese (D); Singer (R).

Senate Education Committee:
Meiklejohn, Chair (R); Donley, Vice Chair (R); Baca (D); Durham (R); Fenlon (R); Groff (D); Lee (R); P. Powers (R); Rizzuto (D).

It's More Than a Letter...
Influencing Elected Representatives

Personal letters from individual constituents rank high in priority for receiving attention because they are perceived as "genuine" expressions of constituent concerns. The following guidelines are for your use in effective letter writing:

- Handwrite your own thoughts on personal stationary to increase the likelihood that your comments will be viewed as "coming from the heart" as opposed to views that have been "solicited" by organized groups.
- Keep it short and simple yet detailed enough to ensure your message is understood clearly.
- Clearly identify the issue or legislation (use bill number if known) and be specific about the intended action. You must be certain your legislator knows exactly what it is you want done. Recommend alternative actions, if appropriate. Vague requests provide the reader latitude to interpret your intentions, perhaps in a manner counter to your best interests.
- Cover one subject per letter.
- Give your reasons for taking a position on the issue.
- Be sure the letter is timely. The legislative process proceeds according to set rules and the effectiveness of action your legislator may take on your behalf will depend largely on timing.
- Use a constructive manner in writing all statements, critical or otherwise—note issues of agreement and complement.
- Limit the frequency of letters. Concentrate on quality not quantity.

- Do not identify yourself as a part of a group when writing as an individual. Generally, the position of the organization on specific issues will already be known to legislators. Your view as a constituent voter is what will elicit maximum response from your legislators.
- Identify your expertise. It is o.k. to state briefly in your letter that you have personal expertise in an issue area.
- Unless you specifically want a reply, say that you don't expect one. Give your full name and address. Identify yourself as a registered voter in your legislator's district.
- Write and thank your elected representatives for supporting legislation you are backing.
- Use proper form of address and salutation.

The Honorable *full name*
Governor, State of Colorado
State Capitol
Denver, Colorado 80203

The Honorable *full name*—legislator
Colorado House of Representatives
or Colorado Senate
State Capitol
Denver, Colorado 80203
Dear Representative *last name*
or
Dear Senator *last name*

Visit Your Elected Representatives

Make a personal visit during the session or while our legislator is in their home district office.

- Call to arrange an appointment.
- Limit the length of time for your visit.
- Before meeting with an elected representative think carefully about what your want to say.
- Be organized—write a brief outline to use. Include bill title/number, your concerns, impact of legislation, alternative proposals, closing statement.
- Be brief and be specific in your reasons for support or opposition.
- Follow up your visit with a brief note of thanks, stating again your position on the issue discussed.

Sunrise/Sunset Committee

Rep. James Moore, Chair, R.
Rep. Jerry Kopel, D.
Rep. Bill Owens, R.
Senator John Donley, R.
Senator Steven Durham, R.
Senator Jana Mendez, D.

MAKE
INFORMED
CONTACT

Very Important People!

Colorado General Assembly

The following list is provided for your use in contacting legislators. Your legislators represent you and will be interested in hearing from you whether or not you below to their party.

Senator	Party	City	Dist	Home Phone
Brandon, James L.	R	Akron	01	345-2128
Rizzuto, Jim	D	La Junta	02	384-8388
Beno, John R.	D	Pueblo	03	543-5555
McCormick, Harold	R	Canon City	04	275-9518
Callihan, C. Michael	D	Gunnison	05	641-3290
Noble, Dan D.	R	Norwood	06	327-4384
Bishop, Tilman M.	R	Gr. Junction	07	242-9230
Wattenberg, David	R	Walden	08	723-4577
Hefley, Joel M.	R	Colo Springs	09	598-2871
Powers, Ray	R	Colo Springs	10	596-1055
Wells, Jeff	R	Colo Springs	11	471-4110
Durham, Steven	R	Colo Springs	12	475-2197
Glass, Thomas	D	Frisco	13	668-3326
Beatty, James	R	Ft. Collins	14	482-1441
Allard, Wayne	R	Loveland	15	667-9230
Donley, John	R	Greeley	16	336-5600
Fowler, Les	R	Boulder	17	442-6054
Mendez, Jana	D	Longmont	18	776-4547
Meiklejohn Jr., Alvin J.	R	Arvada	19	422-2092
Traylor, Claire G.	R	Wheat Ridge	20	424-1737
Lee, Jim	R	Lakewood	21	232-2855
Arnold, Kathy Spelts	R	Littleton	22	979-6221
Strickland, Ted	R	Westminster	23	825-2181
Baca-Barragan, Polly	D	Thornton	24	429-5000
Martinez, Robert	D	Commerce City	25	287-8111
Ezzard, Martha M.	R	Englewood	26	781-0082
Cole, Ralph	R	Denver	27	825-9121
Fenlon, Jack	R	Aurora	28	751-2580
Winkler, Joe	R	Castle Rock	29	688-4238
Gallagher, Dennis J.	D	Denver	30	477-7089
Sandoval, Donald	D	Denver	31	825-4652
Peterson, Ray	D	Denver	32	935-9291
Groff, Regis F.	D	Denver	33	320-0495
Powers, Paul	R	Denver	34	399-3800
Dodge, Cliff	R	Denver	35	722-8459

Representative	Party	City	Dist	Home Phone
Faatz, Jeanne	R	Denver	01	935-6915
Hernandez, Tony	D	Denver	02	922-4388
Knox, Wayne N.	D	Denver	03	934-8707
Bowen, Robert E.	D	Denver	04	455-0153
Hernandez, Phil	D	Denver	05	477-5080
Kopel, Gerald	D	Denver	06	333-2174
Tanner, Gloria	D	Denver	07	355-7288
Webb, Wilma	D	Denver	08	321-4092
Grant, Pat	R	Denver	09	744-8010
Neale, Betty	R	Denver	10	377-7081
Wham, Dorothy	R	Denver	11	757-0615
Swenson, Betty	R	Longmont	12	776-0846

Representative	Party	City	Dist	Home Phone
Hume, Sandy	R	Boulder	13	499-5139
Skaggs, David	D	Boulder	14	442-8913
Wright, Ruth	D	Boulder	15	443-8607
Tebedo, Mary Ann	R	Colo Springs	16	471-2561
Phillips, Barbara	R	Colo Springs	17	635-2152
Bird, Michael C.	R	Colo Springs	18	594-9206
Minahan, Peter M.	R	Colo Springs	19	392-6765
Dambman, Mary	R	Colo Springs	20	593-0210
Berry, Chuck	R	Colo Springs	21	633-5965
Herzog, John	R	Colo Springs	22	636-2554
Fish, Marlene	R	Lakewood	23	238-9637
Allison, Bonnie	R	Edgewater	24	233-2342
Grampsas, Tony	R	Evergreen	25	674-7883
Mielke, Donald E.	R	Lakewood	26	988-2742
Bath, David	R	Arvada	27	422-0647
Mutzebaugh, Dick	R	Conifer	28	670-1145
Taylor-Little, Carol	R	Arvada	29	420-9164
Markert, Molly Margaret	D	Aurora	30	363-7385
Erickson, Dale	R	Ft. Lupton	31	857-4410
Reeser, Jeanne	D	Thornton	32	452-1838
Williams, Kathi	R	Westminster	33	469-4823
Groff, JoAnn	D	Westminster	35	429-7261
Singer, John	R	Aurora	36	366-2854
Paulson, Chris	R	Englewood	37	781-5516
Pankey, Phil	R	Littleton	38	798-5873
Schauer, Paul	R	Littleton	39	770-3872
Hover, Charles	R	Parker	40	841-3454
Johnson, Stanley	D	Pueblo	41	566-1217
Romero, Gilbert E.	D	Pueblo	42	544-2420
Trujillo Sr., Larry	D	Pueblo	43	542-6912
Kirscht, Bob Leon	R	Pueblo	44	546-0622
Bryan, Clifton	R	Loveland	45	667-6559
Strahle, Ronald	R	Ft. Collins	46	223-1769
Brown, Jim	R	Ft. Collins	47	482-8344
Artist, Bill	R	Greeley	48	352-0995
Owens, Bill	R	Aurora	49	693-3092
Bond, Richard	D	Greeley	50	351-6598
Youngland, Walter	R	New Raymer	51	437-5442
Moore, Jim	R	Lakewood	52	985-7655
Scherer, Jim	R	Idaho Springs	53	567-2050
Carpenter, Ed	R	Gr. Junction	54	245-1310
Armstrong-Unfred, Vickie	R	Gr. Junction	55	241-9107
Williams, Dan	R	Edwards	56	926-3457
McInnis, Scott	R	Glenwood Spr	57	945-6546
Underwood, Glenn	R	Olathe	58	249-5756
Campbell, Ben	D	Ignacio	59	563-4623
Entz, Lewis	R	Hooper	60	754-3750
Shoemaker, Robert N.	D	Canon City	61	275-6232
Green, Joan	R	Denver	62	696-1775
Gillis, Elwood	R	Lamar	63	336-3361
Bledsoe, Carl B.	R	Hugo	64	962-3418
Hamlin, John G.	R	Ft. Morgan	65	867-6402

Of Gates And Gatekeepers

by Carole Johnson, Jean Lehmann and Susan McAlonon

Several months ago, a young man made plans to enter a post-secondary vocational program upon his imminent release from a youth detention center. His goal was to continue the training he had begun at the center in electronics. In order to facilitate the youth's transition from the correctional facility to post-secondary education, the principal of the detention center accompanied the young man in his visit to the post-secondary institution. They began by talking to personnel in the admissions office. After taking the tests (which he had previously taken at the detention center) the youth was directed to a number of different agencies and college offices. He never met with the same person twice. After several trips, the youth, along with his principal, visited the financial aid office. Here, the youth was told that receiving the necessary funds to continue his education would be impossible unless his father would release his tax statements. Ultimately, the student's request for financial aid was rejected because he was neither a ward of the state nor emancipated, and his father refused to provide the required financial statement.

It was now too late, the student could not enter his desired program. He left the youth detention facilty with no place to go and no positive structured program to enter. The ending of this story is tragic for us all. Two weeks later, this student committed another crime. He has returned to jail — this time as an adult. The chances are great that he will remain in the criminal justice system.

This example is a true story about a disadvantaged individual. Similar examples exist for handicapped individuals. Ten years ago, Public Law 94-142 strove to provide equal education opportunities to all handicapped children. Prior to that, civil rights statutes were enacted to protect the rights of all individuals in education and employment.

The intent of these laws and of the recently enacted Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 (P.L. 98-524) is to provide equal access for all to vocational education programs. These laws were needed and have radically increased the educational opportunities for both handicapped and disadvantaged persons. However, in our efforts, as professionals, to provide quality

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The Opinions expressed herein are those of the authors; no endorsement is intended or implied on behalf of the State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education, University of Northern Colorado, or Colorado Department of Education.

career/vocational education for special needs populations, we have also created a system of gates and gatekeepers.

For the purposes of this paper, "gates" refers to a progression of services, people or activities that individuals must pass through in order to access and move within educational and employment environments. Some gates may be relevant, others artificial. For example, all children entering school for the first time must be immunized. This requirement or "gate" is to protect all children from serious health risks. It is for the greater good and is, therefore, a realistic and relevant gate. On the other hand, an artificial gate is exemplified by a requirement that students read at the twelfth (12th) grade level in order to enroll in a welding program. This requirement is artificial because it does not reflect actual employment requirements. (Cline, Hartley & Otazo, 1979.)

Similarly, the gates through which the young man in the case had to pass were not necessary. For example, there may have been no need for retesting him. The frustration and boredom which must be felt in such situations would be a blow to motivation for many. What type of gate stood in his way for receiving financial support? Being denied funds because his father refused to provide financial information is an example of an artificial gate.

Legislation itself does not erect gates for individuals to pass through, but rather provides opportunities for access and success in vocational education programs. The manner in which legislation is interpreted, however, does lead to the establishment of a system of gates. An examination of some of the provisions of the Carl Perkins Act (P.L. 98-524) and how realistic or artificial gates can be created illustrates this point.

1. All disadvantaged and handicapped students (and their parents) must be notified prior to the beginning of the 9th grade of the availability of vocational education opportunities and the requirements of these programs.

REALISTIC	ARTIFICIAL
Develop brochures that employ simple language and pictures describing the vocational education programs available and any relevant employment prerequisites. Such brochures should use both English and other languages dominant in the community. The brochures should be designed to actively recruit the participation of handicapped and disadvantaged students in vocational education.	Prepare announcements of the availability of vocational education programs and extensive non-employment related prerequisites incorporating use of technical vocabulary and fine print. Publish such announcements in the advertisement section of the newspaper, in the back of the student handbook, or school catalogue. Do not provide translated text.

2. Provide an assessment of the interests, abilities and special needs of the student with respect to completing, successfully, a vocational educational program.

REALISTIC	ARTIFICIAL
Assess the individual's interests, skills, abilities and aptitudes using a wide variety of methods. This assessment should include a combination of formal and informal techniques such as hands-on experiences in vocational education programs or job sites, work samples, interest inventories, interviews and student records. This information should be interpreted for the purposes of individual vocational planning. (Lehmann & McAlonan, 1985; Razeghi, 1985)	Assess individuals according to one variable such as interest. Do not utilize a combination of formal and informal techniques, but rather use one test which may not be appropriate for the population being served. The results are used to prevent access to vocational programs. (Lehmann, Nelson, Kitz, McAlonan, 1986)

3. Provide special services, including adaptation of curriculum, instruction, equipment and facilities designed to meet the needs of the student enrolled in a vocational education program.

REALISTIC	ARTIFICIAL
Provide a variety of techniques and services to assist special needs individuals to succeed in vocational programs. Such assistance includes computer assisted instruction; teaching study skills; assisting vocational instructors with the modification of curriculum materials, instructional techniques, equipment and grading; referral services to community agencies and other school resources; specialized assistance to individual students; advocate for the success of individual students. (North Carolina Dept. of Instruction, 1985)	Provide a single service for all special students regardless of their individual needs. Do not provide support for vocational instructors. Develop methods for screening students out of vocational education programs.

4. Provide counseling and career development activities for special needs students which are conducted by professionally trained counselors who are familiar with the provision of these special services.

REALISTIC	ARTIFICIAL
Develop a comprehensive guidance and counseling program that includes instructional activities to assist students in acquiring self-assessment, employability, career decision making and career planning skills. Such a program is provided in a variety of settings by professionally trained counselors. Part of this program may incorporate vocational assessment services. (Hughey, 1986)	Require school counselors to spend 30 minutes per year in a specific set of classes (e.g. all 9th grade English classes). Provide written information on a variety of job and higher education opportunities to all students.

5. Provide counseling services designed to facilitate the transition from school to post-secondary employment opportunities to each handicapped or disadvantaged student who enrolls in a vocational education program.

REALISTIC	ARTIFICIAL
Provide counseling services that include job development and placement; follow-along services for students who are placed in employment; linkages with community agencies and resources; and assist students in transitioning to post-secondary vocational education programs. (Johnson, 1980 -Hughey, 1986)	Utilize one community or school resource to address employment needs of all students. Rely on the vocational education or special needs teacher to provide all job placement and transitional services.

Those professionals who design and provide these services or gates are the "gatekeepers." They all exercise power over individuals in ways that may be positive or negative.

When counselors suggest that a color-blind student interested in the area of building trades enroll in carpentry instead of the electrical training program, they are utilizing information and professional responsibility in creating a successful program for that individual. They do not want people to struggle and fail in the electrical field because they cannot discriminate between the various colors of wire.

Conversely, recommending that a learning disabled student not enroll in vocational education, because we are not willing to modify and adapt the instructional materials and methods used, has an extremely negative impact on future employability of this person.

The power to help or to hinder access to appropriate, high quality vocational education has significant impact on an individual's long term employability and self sufficiency. Therefore, all "gatekeepers" must consider if they are using the control they exercise equally to all students or differentially to some students. It is important for all human service professionals to assess the outcomes of their actions. To evaluate whether they are a positive or negative "gatekeeper," counselors and guidance personnel should ask the following questions:

1. Do you believe that there is a variety and range of employment opportunities within occupational areas (e.g. nurses aide to nursing supervisor: hod carrier to journeyman brick mason)?
2. Do you believe employers should participate in designing and developing vocational educational programs that have a wide range of employment opportunities for all students?
3. Do you believe special needs individuals have a wide variety of interests and potentials for success in the labor market?
4. Do you believe special needs learners have potential for success in vocation education?
5. Do you believe instructional methods and counseling techniques can be modified to accommodate individual students in vocational education?
6. Would you participate as a member of a team to assist special needs students in succeeding in vocational education?
7. Are you willing to be an advocate for special needs students in vocational education?
8. Do you believe parents and students should have a role in determining the student's educational and vocational program?
9. Do you believe special needs students should participate in vocational student organizations?
10. Do you believe vocational education has a role in assisting vocational special needs students achieve job placement and job retention?

If you answered "yes" to all of these questions, you have the potential for being a positive "gatekeeper." If you answered "no" to two or more, you should examine the basis for your beliefs.

It is not easy to keep the gates open. Time is a major consideration. Providing opportunities often entails finding creative solutions to difficult puzzles. The young man portrayed in the story did not fit into the standard regulations. It might have taken a lot of work to find a means of providing funding to him. There are few easy solutions and no guarantees that the solutions found will significantly alter situations.

The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act (P.L. 98-524) will have a major effect on the services professionals must provide to special needs individuals. Vocational and special educators will be looking to counselors for assistance in the implementation of this new legislation (Hughey, 1986). It is, therefore, incumbent on counselors to review their roles and the options available for fulfilling the requirements of the Act.

In an effort to create realistic gates and positive gatekeepers, the Colorado State Board of Community Colleges and Occupational Education has provided support for two innovative projects. First, a *Vocational Assessment Handbook* was developed by the University of Northern Colorado to assist school personnel and others in designing local assessment systems to address the needs of special populations. Five regional workshops were conducted to disseminate the Handbook.

Second, Colorado State University is developing a set of video tapes and a guidebook that emphasizes proactive approaches to implementing the counseling provisions of the Carl D. Perkins Act for special needs students. Regional workshops will be conducted concerning the utilization of these materials.

In conclusion, various pieces of federal legislation have been enacted that mandate access for special populations to vocational education. As a result of the interpretation of these laws, systems of gates and gatekeepers have developed. In some cases these systems have created barriers, in others, new opportunities and wider horizons for individuals have emerged. With realistic gates and positive gatekeepers in vocational education, special needs individuals have the opportunity to achieve their full potential for employment and self-sufficiency. When this is achieved, we, as professionals, have truly put knowledge to work.

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Love of Lifelong Learning (A Counselor's Influence, Responsibility and Expertise)

by Bill Murphy

Today's times generate new thinking and direction for those in leadership and counseling position across the nation. Marilyn Ferguson in *The Aquarian Conspiracy* (1980) writes about the implosion of information, the global village, the human catalysts, the new options in classrooms. She goes on to advocate transformative ideas and says that hearts as well as minds must change. She infers that communication must be not only wide but deep.

With that as a reference, counselors of tomorrow will be vital implementors of change and sensitive support personnel for the bold new steps American elementary and secondary teachers, counselors and administrators must be willing to make to educate Americans for the 21st century. (National Science Board Commission, 1983).

In *The Situational Leader,* Hersey (1984) speaks about an upward "effective cycle" of success. He explains that the leader's high but realistic expectations lead to high performance which then reinforces higher expectations spiraling to even higher performance.

From this, counselors might reflect on the possibility that a similar learning spiral exists in all people. And as counselors become more influential and instrumental collectively, select leaders will emerge within their ranks and schools. As a result, a climate of learning achievement unequaled will become the major focus of schools and the love of learning will cause students and adults to make enormous strides toward successful change and learning.

It was Aristotle who said, "It is the nature of the human being to desire to know." That desire, drive, hunger and enjoyment for learning will continue for an individual's lifetime if encouraged, nurtured and modeled by America's best counselor-educators.

How can counselors effectively cause a love of lifelong learning to occur in the schools today? Here are ten possible suggestions counselors can model and promote:

1. Encourage each colleague to share building talents with other faculties by rotating positions through five year building (transfer programs) for every counselor.
2. Co-instruct with faculty in crucial areas of counseling development; for example, human relations in the Business department, resume/essay writing for college applications in the English department, psychological/social issues in the Home Economics and Social Studies departments.

Bill Murphy is a counselor at Loveland High School in Loveland, Colorado.

3. Post simple human relations ground rules throughout the building to include:
    a) Encourage no probings, interruptions, gossip or put-downs in any classroom or any human encounter or exchange.
    b) Talk **to** people not **about** them.
    c) Criticize ideas, not persons.
    d) Care about others' feelings.
    e) Share ideas, materials and resources freely.
    f) Admit mistakes with an apology.
4. Schedule and train for faculty advisement "clusters", where one adult moderator is responsible for fifteen students. Encouraging weekly participation and involvement in quality circle problem-solving, and personal-growth experiences.
5. Build a master counselor career ladder plan to promote and encourage voluntary, successful leadership in an individual's natural talent and strength area.
6. Assist the curriculum council, accountability committee and the administration in the articulation of the district's five, ten and fifteen year educational growth plan.
7. Be actively involved in building and district level staff development programs for advanced degrees, certificate renewal and faculty improvement.
8. Share and list the best books and community resources available in family counseling, parenting, drug rehabilitation, study habits, stress management, time management, suicide prevention, peer support, group dynamics.
9. Design and use counseling services evaluation instruments annually, encourage input from parents, students, teachers and administrators.
10. Revise counseling job descriptions, objectives, district and building level goals annually based on the in-put from evaluations.

Other's love for lifelong learning will occur naturally and efficiently with a counselor's influence, responsibility and expertise. Counselors play a key role in supporting and modeling change, while sensitive to the normal fears encountered from that change. Once fear subsides, tremendous strides of learning and love will occur. Together, through innovative counseling techniques and procedures, Americans will move confidently into the 21st century and beyond.

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Taking Stock: One Program's Effort to Measure Its Successes and Shortcomings

by Walter L. Strandburg

Instruction in higher education often is criticized for failing to assess the ministrations of ivory-tower educators who may be out of touch with people they are paid to serve. The preacher's sermons reflect his belief, fashioned from behind the pulpit, of what is best for his congregation and its salvation. But what does the congregation think of his god and his plans for its salvation?

The professor's syllabus, by the same token, tends to reflect the instructor's beliefs of what best prepares students for their careers. But what do the students think? Some ministers and, perhaps, all educators can resist assuming a sacerdotal role by consulting those they serve. They will thus be better attuned to the ever-shifting attitudes, opinions and practices which shape the "real" world in which students ultimately have careers.

The need for follow-up evaluations is recognized by the State of Colorado as stated in the Teacher Certification Act of 1975; "The purpose of the follow-up evaluation is to provide an opportunity for Colorado Teacher Education graduates and their employers to review and evaluate the teacher preparation provided by Colorado institutions of higher education and to communicate these evaluations to the institution's administration and faculty..." A "Visiting Team Report" by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (1984) chastised the School of Education, University of Colorado, for showing "...no evidence that the institution engages in systematic efforts to evaluate the quality of its graduates upon completion of their programs of study and after they enter their professional roles."

The importance of this process in education is attested to in most formal accreditation procedures. Authors Scott M. Cutlip and Allen H. Center express in their book, *Effective Public Relations* (1964), that research provides the objective look required to 'know thyself' on this issue of program review.

In an attempt to be responsive to the obvious reasonableness of the above stated need for self-appraisal and looking inward at the relationship between assumed academic objectives and the reality of accomplishment of those objectives, was a survey developed to measure the usefulness of the graduate program in Counseling and Personnel Services, School of Education, University of Colorado at Denver.

Survey Methods

A four-page questionnaire was mailed to 170 alumni of the counseling program, a sample representing 100 percent of the program's graduates between

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1974 and 1984. Seventy usable responses were obtained (a 41.2% return). Respondents could remain anonymous. Obvious advantages of mail questionnaires are ease of distribution, low cost, and effectiveness in reaching large groups. A major shortcoming can be low response rate. However, in this case, the comparatively high response rate adds to the soundness of the findings. Questions were designed to elicit responses concerning the curriculum, faculty, and students' reasons for entering the program. They were also asked whether or not the program enabled them to realize those objectives. Some responses are not presented in this report in order to protect the rights to confidentiality of named individuals. This information has been made available to the person it interests. An example of such information is, "What is the name of the faculty member who made the most contribution to your graduate education?" Copies of the survey are available by contacting W.L. Strandburg at (303) 556-2861.

Survey Results

For the purpose of summary, the data has been divided into three categories: (1) Careers, (2) Courses and (3) Direction.

(1) Careers: For most respondents (46%), the principal motivation in attending the UCD graduate program in counseling was to expand their career potential. In that respect, the curriculum is successful. For 51 percent of the respondents, the program resulted in a change of occupation (e.g. from classroom teaching to school counseling).

Interestingly, though, more than half (53%) of the graduates of the counseling program never have been employed in counseling since obtaining their degree. Another 30 percent are in agency counseling or private practice while only 17 percent are pursuing careers as school counselors.

(2) Courses: Students in this sample overwhelmingly favored those courses which offered practical, experiential approaches to their professional development. Classes rated most useful were those which gave hands-on experience in counseling. All courses in the curriculum were rated on a "Usefulness Scale" of 1 to 5 with 5 being great and 1 being low.

The five highest rated courses all had an emphasis on practical approach to counseling. The five were: (1) Pre-practicum Lab (96.7% approved), (2) Field Practicum (96.2% approved), (3) Lab in Personal Appraisal (72.8% approved), (4) Group Process (70.9% approved), and (5) Theory Techniques (70.3% approved). All other courses (12) in the survey rated below 60 percent approval and only 3 above 50 percent.

Students stressed that the faculty appears to be less than successful in the teaching of courses in the "core curriculum" or communicating the relevance of these materials. A minimum of nine hours of foundation level course work (i.e. Sociological Foundations, Psychological Foundations, Statistics, and Multicultural Education) is required of all graduate degree students in the School of Education. Of the four courses listed as core requirements, the approval rates were all below 60 percent. The perceived importance of these courses is low.

On a five point scale from "very demanding" to "not at all demanding," 67 percent of those responding rate the academic rigor of the curriculum as between "appropriate" to "very demanding." However, 33 percent rate the program as too easy or not demanding. The faculty rating was satisfactory; 83 percent found the faculty accessible and 67 percent rated the advising as adequate. This leaves 33 percent, however, who found the advising of uncertain or negative value.

(3) Direction: 66 percent of the respondents indicated that the curriculum

lacked a sufficient number of electives while 79.7 percent considered the number of credit hours as sufficient.

Students listed a range of courses which they felt would have enhanced their professional development if they had been offered at CU-Denver. Their suggestions included more emphasis on: (a) counseling techniques, (b) clinical skills, (c) one-on-one counseling and (d) small-group training. Further work on group dynamics, family therapy, gay issues, legal issues, child abuse and drug abuse were also requested. Students indicated a need for short term courses (67%) and advanced level seminars (61%). Clearly there is a market for post graduate training and for more instruction by practicing professionals.

Conclusions

The purpose of the follow-up evaluation was to provide an opportunity for graduates of the Counseling and Personnel Service program to provide feedback to those who develop and teach the counselor training curriculum provided by the University of Colorado at Denver. The overall findings are supportive of the program. Graduates have found employment in a variety of counselor and human relations settings. No one regretted completing the program and career objectives generally were realized. Many courses in the curriculum were reported as being very useful and practical. Support and advising services were reported as adequate. Those who experience the program approved of it and recommend it to colleagues. It is also evident that the alumni are in favor of altering the core program requirements in favor of experiential courses. Educators offering this program must respect and listen to student needs and opinions when determining a basis for retaining what is best and for adapting the curriculum to changing realities. By integrating student views and perceptions with the judgement, knowledge and expertise of the faculty, a curriculum will evolve to best serve students and community.

Surveys such as this rate additional questions for those responsible for graduate school curricula. Do the courses adequately meet the needs of students who have focused upon the potential to expand their careers? Should the schools tailor their programs strictly to meet the present career interests of students? How do they prepare students to face the reality of fewer career opportunities? If this trend continues, what are the ethics of educating more and more students in a profession where there are fewer and fewer career opportunities? The professionals in counseling must face these issues along with the educators because the entire profession suffers when it cannot make room for new members.

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Decisions of College Women

by Sue Spooner

In the New Directions series monograph on *Facilitating the Development of Women* (Evans, 1985), Jessie Bernard points out that 'Young undergraduate women face the task of choosing among a variety of options.' She also stresses that student services professionals need to be especially aware of the pressures created by the increased options available to women, and the unclear expectations of society.

What kinds of choices are those with which college women struggle? Which decisions do they find easy to make? Which are difficult? What issues facing them as undergraduates have they already resolved, and which do they foresee as issues for themselves in the future?

The literature on decision making falls into two general categories: books about decision making which promise to teach better decision making skills, and which usually rely on logical but assumptional models for rational approaches to deciding; and articles in the psychology literature in which behavior is studied using a decision task. Neither body of work seems to speak directly to the questions raised above. Evans (1985) points out that major theories of adult development fail to account for the possibility that women may approach the world differently than do men, that they face different choices and ambiguous norms.

Nelson (1978), in her book *CHOOSING*, treats the choice process as volitional, and hints that it may be a matter of style. Harrison & Bramson (1982) relates decision making and problem solving to styles of thinking and strategies for asking questions. Together, these authors provide the beginnings of a possible theory about decision processes, but they do not suggest differences in approach or content based on gender.

Interest in the issue of women's choices led to an exploratory study of women students enrolled in a Career and Self Exploration Course at the University of Northern Colorado in the Fall quarter of 1984. A simple questionnaire was designed and administered to 58 women in five sections of this course. All but five of these women were in either their first or second year of college with ages ranging from 17 to 38. Forty-five students, or 76 percent, were aged 18 to 19 years.

Seven general areas of content were explored: educational/career, spiritual/religious, sexuality, family, civic/community, personal/inner life, and relationships—both romantic and friendship. The students were asked to list, by category, any decisions they had had to make in these areas during the past twelve months, and to recall how difficult each was. In a second portion of the survey, the same students were asked to respond to a list of 30

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decisions in terms of whether they were already resolved, currently at issue, or anticipated as a problem in the future.

Whether to go to college was a relatively easy choice, and, for this group, already resolved. The choice of a major, however, was seen as more difficult, and it was current for these women (logical, since they were in a career exploratory course). Which college to attend, where to live and with whom while there were also rated as easy decisions, and most had already resolved them.

Dating and relationship choices were rated as more difficult to make and were as often unresolved, or anticipated as future problems, as they were reported to be resolved. Whether to be sexually active and related decisions about using contraception were rated as easy and already resolved. The survey did not ask what the outcome of that resolution was, however. Marriage was, largely, a future issue, although several women (15) reported this as already resolved. Also a future issue for most is the choice of having or not having children.

Sharing things of personal importance with parents was not seen as an issue, nor was selection of a social group. Tolerance of differences in others and religious observance were likewise not identified as problematic issues. Quite possibly, these areas do not arise in the conscious realm, but are resolved at a sub-conscious level, hence do not become issues of which young women are aware, or about which they see choices as needing to be made.

Choices relating to the pursuit of a career objective are viewed as relatively difficult, and even when resolved, are expected to arise again. Women in this sample took it for granted that they needed to make choices about careers. Whether to work or not was an already resolved issue.

Managing money and decisions about vacations tended to be reported as already resolved, but a spread of responses were observed in the 'not resolved' or 'anticipated as future issues' categories. Allocating resources, such as money and leisure time, are potent issues for at least 50 percent of this group.

Citizenship responsibilities, even in a presidential election year, were not regarded as issues requiring decision-making effort. Seeking help with problems and sharing of one's inner self were nearly evenly divided, with 50% expecting to have to struggle with these areas at some time, and 50% responding that these were not issues for them. Over half of the group expected to have to struggle with whether to confront another person over an ethical issue at some time. This is an interesting result, since tolerance of others was reported as not an issue. Apparently, women in this group made a distinction between tolerance of others' differences, and the need to confront behavior in others which is in conflict with strong personal moral standards. Further investigation of this distinction and how it is made suggests itself as a fertile area of inquiry.

Several women wrote in items over which they were struggling and these tended to be multidimensional. Relationship issues were bound up with where to live and with whom. When to marry was tied to financial concerns as well as relationships. Sharing with parents was made prominent by a decision over whether to buy a car. Drug use was a specific issue for one woman, who brought to our attention our omission of this area from the survey.

The areas with which these women are struggling most center around relationship issues, marriage, love and friendship. While they have resolved issues about being sexually active, they report that decisions around relationships, marriage, love and friendship were having to be made. However, the order in which these decisions were to be made was unresolved. School is important to them, but so are separation from and attachment to people who are significant to them. Getting what they want from life involves a series of compromises between doing what will help them achieve educational and career goals, and doing what is needed to maintain relationships. Primarily, these relationships are with boyfriends, but there was significant mention of parents, girlfriends, and even siblings. In giving consideration to the kinds of help college women need, it may be important to pay more attention to this area, which seems fraught with conflict and difficulty. The alternatives are not always clear, nor are the consequences. Counselors, deans and other helping professionals in the environment need to be alert for these special concerns of their women students.

Community and civic responsibilities are of little concern to these women. Even though the data for this survey was collected in mid-October 1984, just before the presidential election, items dealing with exercising the franchise to vote failed, almost totally, to elicit any issues. One conclusion that might be drawn from this is that if women are going to participate in the political life of the nation, they will come to that participation later in their lives. Being in college takes their immediate attention.

Religious issues are likewise of little concern. A few women reported struggling with questions about staying with or deviating from earlier religious connections, but they rated these as fairly easy to resolve. Again, the harder choices were tied up with relationship issues...what parents wanted, whether to adopt a boyfriend's faith, and similar struggles.

Whether the category was family, inner life, sexuality or relationships, the tough issues were those which centered around conflicts between what the student wanted or needed and what others expected, demanded, or might do in response. In the career and educational category, all the issues besides those of choosing a major, or selecting an educational or career goal, were tied to relationships. It is likely that even these very discrete, seemingly entirely personal choices, get caught up with relationship issues too. Again, this is an area deserving of some future exploration.

When attempting to teach decision making to college students, the tendency is to operate on the assumption that there is a rational, step-by-step process which can be applied to the task. Results, from this survey raise questions about that assumption. It is the author's contention that the decisions which the women report as most difficult, do not lend themselves to simple rational processes, and counselors may not be offering them much in-depth help with the complex multifactored choices which face them. Since relatively few will voluntarily see counseling, being aware of the possibility that a woman student is struggling with decisions which involve balancing relationship factors with other choices may make student personnel's work with her more effective. Asking the right questions, listening for these kinds of conflicts in what a student says to us, and being prepared to help clarify the issues and how they are intertwined would all be appropriate strategies.

Learning to listen for the "Different Voice" about which Gilligan (1982) speaks, needs to become part of a counselor's repertoire. Data from this small survey suggest new avenues of inquiry, and raises awareness of the content of decisions with which college women are faced. Future investigations are planned which will seek more detail and some insight into the processes by which women reach decisions.

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On Defining Counsultation

by Stephen E. Hodge, Albert E. Roark and Daryl Sander

When you use the term "consultation" in discussions with colleagues in other professional specialties, what is the likelihood that each of you is thinking about the same, or at least, a similar construct?

School personnel, across an increasing number of specializations, are accepting the role of consultant as an important component of their repertoire of professional services. During their pre-service education and throughout their continuing education, they have become aware of a variety of consultation models. Nonetheless, it seems to be a reasonable assumption that most have developed preferred conceptualizations and practices consistent with a narrow range of models. To some extent, this restriction may reflect unique personal characteristics which have contributed to the specialization career choice as well as to the consultation model adopted.

In their interactions regarding consultation with colleagues across specializations, the authors have become aware of specialty related conceptual differences in model emphasis. However, no literature was found that would permit generalization beyond personal experience. Awareness and identification of field related consultation differences have potential for improved communication among specialties and more effective consultation training.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the hypothesized specialty related differences in concepts of consultation would become apparent through a systematic analysis of school psychologists', counselors' and special education teachers' definitions of consultation.

Content and Subjects

One hundred and eighty-five responses to the question, "Consultation is ______", were included in the results of an extensive survey of consultation practices conducted by the Colorado Consultation Project at the University of Colorado. This open ended question was the first item in a questionnaire sent to three randomly selected samples (n = 100 each) of school psychologists, counselors, and special education teachers drawn from lists provided by the Colorado Department of Education. Return rates were 72%, 59% and 60% for the psychologists, counselors and teachers, respectively. However, definitions were provided by only 71 psychologists, 59 counselors, and 55 special educators.

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Procedures

The definitions were analyzed and sorted by eight judges who were advanced graduate students in an educational psychological studies program. To assure that each judge had equivalent information, five consultation type descriptor cards taken from Blake and Mouton (1983) were distributed to each judge. These cards contained the following set of consultation models and related descriptive characteristics of interventions.

A. Theory-Principles interventions
   Content emphasis is on understanding cause and effect relationships...Aid client in acquiring a theoretical basis for predicting consequences, anticipating changes and planning accordingly...

B. Prescriptive interventions
   Medical model...Consultant is the expert who identifies, diagnoses, and recommends solution(s) to problems...

C. Confrontation interventions
   Aid client, through confrontation, to explore consequences of value-related behaviors...Consultant creates awareness of contradictions to help clients test their objectivity...

D. Catalytic interventions
   Cooperative, collaborative, supportive relationship is developed to assist the client to do what the client wants to do in an improved and/or more efficient way...

E. Acceptant interventions
   Help the client to clarify and accept feelings through sympathetic listening, empathic support, and unconditional acceptance...inducing catharsis.

Judges were instructed to read the information on the descriptor cards. Discussion between judges was not allowed at this time, nor during other steps in the procedure. Upon completion of their reading, each judge was given a stack of 44 definition cards and was instructed to sort these cards relative to the five categories. Each of the definition cards contained a response to "Consultation is ______." The 44 cards which each judge sorted included the same proportion of definitions from each of the three professional specialties; the judges were not informed of the source of any definition. The definitions were randomly arranged so as to further insure specialty anonymity. Each judge sorted one-fourth of the available definitions (nine of the original 185 were randomly deleted so as to have equal numbers for each judge); judges were not informed that one other judge was sorting the same set of items.

Results

Table 1 presents the Chi-Square analysis of the judges' sortings.

Since the obtained Chi-Square of 17.736 exceeds the .05 critical value of 15.507, it is concluded that a relationship exists between field of specialization and type of consultation definition, at least as determined by this procedure.

Though the majority of the definitions by school psychologists, counselors, and special education teachers were identified as approximating the Prescriptive type or the Catalytic type of consultation, the distribution of the Confrontation definitions clarifies the major differentiation between the specialties. Approximately 20% of the psychologists and counselors produced definitions which were categorized as confrontal, but none of the special education teachers produced confrontal definitions. Scanning the patterns of observed/expected differences in the Table, it can be seen that special education teachers produced more Prescriptive definition than could be expected by chance.

Table 1
Chi-Square for Specialty by Consultation-Type Definition

Consultation Type	Psychologists	Counselors	Teachers	Marginal Frequencies
Theory	O = 27 E = 24.727 0.209	O = 18 E = 20.364 0.274	O = 19 E = 18.909 0.000	64
Prescriptive	O = 40 E = 49.841 1.943	O = 43 E = 41.045 0.093	O = 46 E = 38.113 1.632	129
Confrontation	O = 14 E = 9.273 2.410	O = 10 E = 7.636 0.732	O = 00 E = 7.091 7.091	24
Catalytic	O = 46 E = 41.727 0.438	O = 29 E = 34.364 0.837	O = 33 E = 31.909 0.037	108
Acceptant	O = 9 E = 10.432 0.197	O = 12 E = 8.591 1.353	O = 6 E = 7.977 0.490	27
Marginal Frequencies	136	112	104	352

Chi-Square = 17.736
Critical value at .05 (df = 8) = 15.507

Though the counselors were similar to the other groups in having a large number of their definitions classified as Prescriptive, their relative uniqueness was in the number of definitions categorized as Acceptant. School psychologists' definitions were more evenly distributed between the Prescriptive and Catalytic categories than those of the other specialits, and their relative emphasis was in the Catalytic category.

Discussion

It appears that the authors' speculations regarding systematic differences between professional specialists in their conceptualizations of consultation may have a basis in fact. It seems that testing this hypothesis on other samples with alternative procedures is warranted.

Ninety-two percent of the special education teachers in the Consultation Project's sample claimed that consultation was part of their role, yet it appears their concept of consultation is more narrow than that of counselors and school psychologists. It may be this restrictiveness and the emphasis on the Prescriptive model that catches our attention in interactions with Special Education teachers. By the same logic, the most distinguishing characteristic of school psychologists may be their broad ranging perspectives, plus their relative emphasis on the Catalytic model. Counselors also seem to show recognition of a wide range of options; however, their relatively greater emphasis of Acceptance interventions sets them apart.

The general pattern of findings tends to substantiate what some practitioners might have predicted, particularly with regard to the emphasis across specialties on the Prescriptive and Catalytic types of consultative interventions. Given the general opposition to the medical model in the current educational literature on consultation, it may be disheartening to some to see its continuing prevalence, but it should be valuable to recognize the possible real/ideal discrepancy.

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BOOK REVIEW

THE NEGLECTED MAJORITY

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by Dale Parnell
The Community College Press; Washington, D.C., 1985
Reviewed by Brent R. Jacobsen

The author, Dale Parnell, is the Executive Director of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, the organization that represents over 1200 community, technical and junior colleges and more than 11 million students each year. This fact alone probably qualifies him to write a book which "throws the spotlight upon some real-life people called 'ordinary students' and upon how high schools and community colleges might work together on behalf of this middle quartile of students," as Parnell summarizes in his final chapter. However, his experiences as a secondary-school teacher, principal, school superintendent, the Oregon Superintendent of Public Instruction (an elected office), college professor, and the President of three community colleges add to his impressive credibility and qualifications to author such a book. Parnell's vast experience permeates his book in the form of insightful observations, pragmatic suggestions, and realistic plans. This is not a book written from an ivory tower.

Prompted by the recent plethora of reports calling for college and university reform which largely ignore the hugh portion of the population—the neglected majority—that will never earn a bachelor's degree, Parnell builds a convincing case for innovative strategies for educating the so-called "ordinary student" and for re-evaluating the common indices of excellence in education. He proposes a "2 + 2/tech-prep" associate degree — a four-year course of study beginning in the 11th grade and completed during the second year at a community college. He calls on community colleges to work with high schools on such an alternative to the typical secondary-school curriculum which prepares students either for a bachelor's degree or a vocation. He prompts all of us to measure excellence in education at our institutions not by the number of students going on to pursue a bachelor's degree, but by the concept of the "value-added" to our students. The "value-added," of course, refers to the actual learning that occurs and competencies gained by a student while in our schools.

The four-year 2 + 2 tech-prep/associate degree program is intended to run parallel with and not replace the current college-prep/baccalaureate-degree

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program. It would combine a common core of learning and technical education and would rest upon a foundation of basic proficiency development in math, science, communications and technology. Beginning with the junior year in high school, students would select the tech-prep program, and continue for four years in a structured and closely coordinated high school/college curriculum. They would be taught by high school teachers for the first two years, but would have access to college personnel and facilities when appropriate.

Clearly, such a program would require close curricular coordination. There can be no "turf battles" in an operation such as this. One of the major strengths of *THE NEGLECTED MAJORITY* is the inclusion by Parnell of a framework to achieve such articulation. He provides many useful suggestions, charts, tables, statistics, even sample curricula and lists of competencies. Several community colleges and school districts across the nation are already utilizing programs similar to the 2 + 2/tech-prep system proposed and he has included descriptions of those, as well.

Those "ordinary students" — the three out of four of whom will not go on for a bachelor's degree — are indeed a neglected majority in our current educational "nonsystem." According to one study, 42 percent of our high school students are in a diluted program of "general education," which is neither vocational or college-prep in focus. Nearly two-thirds of the high school drop-outs come from the general education program. Perhaps the 2 + 2 tech-prep option could add the relevance and offer the form of education needed by this currently wasted human resource. Parnell places such an idea in the context of our current and future economic, political and social environments. He uses a crisp writing style, up-to-date data, and profound quotes from a diverse group of credible people to provide a convincing argument that, at the very least, the 2 + 2 tech-prep program warrants public discussion and consideration.

THE NEGLECTED MAJORITY really is must reading for secondary and post-secondary instructors and administrators, school board and advisory committee members, counselors and student affairs personnel, and those who recognize the weaknesses of an elitist educational system. With *THE NEGLECTED MAJORITY*, Parnell adds a voice to the general debate on reform in higher education that says, "We must learn to ignore, indeed to laugh at, the assumption that a baccalaureate degree is the sole road to excellence, respect and dignity for people."

"The great debate over excellence in higher education is closer to a monologue of the one-sided opinions of well-meaning individuals and groups who have little contact with non-bacalaureate America." If you have any question about this assertion, please read this book.

THE NEGLECTED MAJORITY is available for $17.95 ($18.95 if not prepaid) from the Community College Press, Publications Sales Office, 80 South Early Street, Alexandria, VA 22304. The telephone number is (202) 293-7050.

BOOK REVIEW

LEFT ALIVE: After a Suicide in the Family

by Linda Rosenfeld and Marilynne Prupas
Charles C. Thomas, Publisher; Springfield, Illinois, 1984
Reviewed by Alan J. Farber

According to its authors, *LEFT ALIVE* is a book "written for family members and friends grieving a suicide death and for the helping professionals who work with them." In its 100 pages, Rosenfeld and Prupas explore the bereavement process unique to survivors of suicide.

The Prologue is a brief examination of suicide from a historical, social and religious perspective. Like much of *LEFT ALIVE*, the subject matter is covered in a rather cursory fashion. However, this book is not intended as a comprehensive nor empirical examination of suicide bereavement. Neither does it serve as a guide to postventive therapeutic interventions with the survivors of suicide. Instead, *LEFT ALIVE* renders a thought-provoking and often emotionally powerful portrait of the survivors of suicide. The authors' use of case studies, and suicide survivors' quotations, writings and poetry personalizes and emotionalizes the subject matter in a manner often foreign to books and articles on the subject of suicide.

Chapter One examines the survivors' search for "answers to unanswerable questions," such as: Why did s/he do it? Who is responsible? How am I to blame? How could I have prevented it? What do I do now? The stage is set for the following three chapters which focus upon the grief process unique to suicide bereavement. The reader will note the theoretical influence of Eric Lindemann, Gerald Kaplan, and Elizabeth Kubler-Ross's work on crisis intervention and grief reactions. However, the authors effectively delineate the "added impediments" to mourning a death by suicide. Externally, societal reactions to suicide invariably hinder and prolong the grieving process. The social network commonly available to mourners is often absent or actively avoided by the suicide survivor. Survivors are often simultaneously cast in the role of victim and perpetrator.

Other impediments to the mourning process are internally imposed in the form of numerous personal reactions and emotions: disbelief, confusion, helplessness, shame, anger, and feelings of abandonment. Guilt, perhaps the most pervasive and debilitating emotional reaction to suicide, stems from feelings of self-blame and/or relief. Survivors often contemplate suicide themselves, questioning their own sanity or worth. Others direct their emotions outward, creating a "circle of blame" that expands toward school, church, courts, and/or helping professionals.

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The authors note that the manner in which these externally and internally imposed hindrances to mourning manifest themselves differs among survivors depending upon any number of factors. Chapters Five through Eight explore the unique effect of suicide among parents, spouses, children and siblings, respectively. These four chapters powerfully convey the reactions of family members, and the influence of their pre-suicide relations with the victim upon the bereavement process. Case studies include the mother experiencing anger directed both at herself and the psychological/educational community who was unable to save her child; the wife whose marriage died years before her husband chose death; and the child who overheard arguments containing his name and concluded that he was to blame for his father's subsequent suicide. Additional factors that influence the family members' reactions to their loved one's suicide appear throughout these chapters: the expectedness or unexpectedness of the event; the perceived impact of the last interaction between the loved one and the victim; the contents or absence of a suicide note; and the reaction and influence of friends, in-laws, and helping professionals.

The final chapter looks at the three stages of bereavement and the accompanying needed stages of support. Group "workshops" and "mutual-help" (support) groups are discussed. Helping professionals seeking specific therapeutic guidelines or prescriptions may be disappointed in this chapter. "Structured exercises" are reported to be of value, but are not described. The dearth of attention given to individual counseling reveals the authors' bias toward group therapy. In addition, I would have liked to see increased attention paid to the reaction of extra-familial survivors: lovers, classmates, co-workers, church members, helping professionals, etc.

It should be apparent that *LEFT ALIVE* does not represent the last word in the treatment and understanding of suicide survivors. Readers seeking more comprehensive examinations of the subject are directed to the references that appear throughout the pages of the book, most notably Cain's *SURVIVORS OF SUICIDE*, and Wallace's *AFTER SUICIDE*. However, it bears repetition that *LEFT ALIVE* was written for the helping professional and layperson alike. It presents, in an often elegant and poignant fashion, the unique pain experienced by family members who survive a suicide. It was emotionally impactful without being mawkishly sentimental; scholarly without being pallid or tedious. Paul Termansen, M.D., in his forward to the book, perhaps expresses it best when he says: "*LEFT ALIVE* will fill a gap in the lives of all those who are involved with suicide. In the end, we all are."

GUIDELINES FOR AUTHORS

The Colorado Association for Counseling and Development invites articles for publication in its journal *Awareness*. The deadline for submission of articles is *December 1* of each year. Articles should be sent to:

Rich Feller
Awareness Editor
Department of Vocational Education
Colorado State University
Ft. Collins, CO 80523

It is important that the journal represent all divisions of CACD and members are encouraged to submit articles about their work, research, and thought-provoking challenges to the profession.

In addition, photos are needed for the journal cover for each issue. Please send any photos which you believe would be appropriate. Although no honorarium can be paid, proper credit will be given to each photographer whose work is published.

Typing and Other Requirements

1. Send the original manuscript and two clear copies. The original should be typed on 8½ × 11 nontranslucent white bond. Do not use onionskin or erasable bond.
2. Attach a cover page which provides:
   - title of the article
   - name of the author(s)
   - author's position and place of employment
   - author's address and phone number(s)
3. Style and format should follow the 1983 edition of the *American Psychological Association Publication Manual.*
4. Include an abstract, not to exceed 100 words.
5. Use non-sexist language throughout.
6. Never submit a manuscript which is under consideration by another publication.

Upon publication, each author will receive two personal copies of the journal.

Note: Authors bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures.

Awareness

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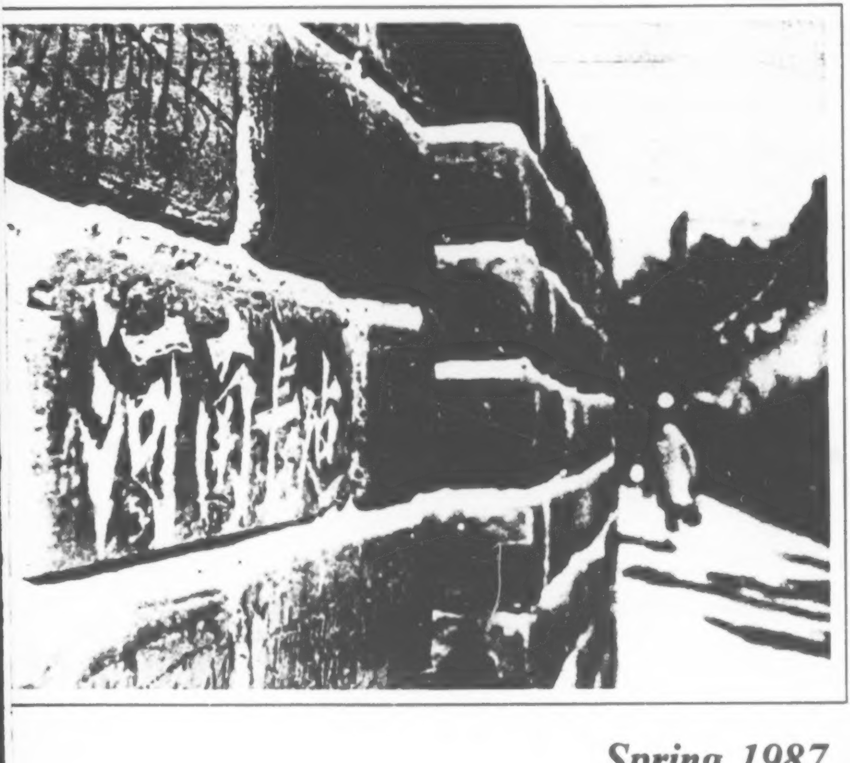

Spring 1987

The Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development

Awareness

Spring 1987
Volume 15

Rich Feller, Editor

Photo courtesy of Barbara Cancilla

Editor's Note

In a recent national publication comparing the number of articles submitted, accepted and rejected among major counseling journals I was struck by the significant differences between any two journals. As expected, those often seen as most reputable had the highest rejection rate. Equally as intriguing were the numbers of journals who worked with authors to encourage re-submission of articles. Both points helped me to reflect on the *Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development* as I asked "how are we doing?"

Once again more articles were submitted than can be published, and two articles have been on hold for well over a year as authors refined their work and re-submit an even better article. As Editor I'm encouraged, for it may say that we've got a pretty good thing in Colorado. Not only do we live in one of the best states in the world, but we also belong to an organization held in high esteem. Let's hope the Journal merits your continued support. Be encouraged to send manuscripts and contact me with your ideas.

Stay well,

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Helping Gifted Students: The School Counselor's Role

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by Caroline R. Baker

Although school counselors have played a primary role in facilitating special programs for the learning disabled, the needs of students with exceptionally high abilities have sometimes been ignored. The federal government's Office of Gifted Education has been closed since 1981, and fewer than half of America's schools provide programs tailored for the academically talented (Kerr and Miller, 1986). Many gifted children do not succeed within their academic setting and may drop out of school or fail to continue their education beyond high school (Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan, 1985). Their critical thinking skills and their persistent demands and questions may go unrewarded as classroom teachers regard these as unacceptable behaviors (Correll, 1978).

"Giftedness" may be demonstrated in athletics, the performing arts, leadership, and creativity; this paper, however, addresses the uniqueness of students with superior intellect. Children identified as gifted typically have mental abilities in the upper two and one half to three percent of the population (Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan, 1985). In order to realize their contributions to self and to society, these students need guidance programs that address their special needs. School counselors can play a vital role in the identification of the gifted, in providing support and resources for appropriate classroom programs, and in developing strategies for meeting the emotional needs of the gifted.

Identification Procedures

Ideally, identification should be made in the early school years to avoid frustration, boredom, underachievement, and the development of poor study habits (Walker, 1982).

STANDARDIZED MEASURES

In most school systems standardized testing programs are already administered to the student body to monitor curriculum objectives and to identify individual student skills. Counselors are usually aware of those students whose scores consistently fall within the upper reaches of a particular area or whose total battery is within the upper three percent of the population. Group tests of intelligence, achievement and creativity are relatively inexpensive to administer as screening devices. When possible, individually administered intelligence tests provide a more accurate picture of ability.

NOMINATIONS

As counselors are in touch with classroom activities, they may identify those students who demonstrate an excitement toward learning, a commit-

---

Caroline R. Baker is a counselor at Sroul Junior High School in Colorado Springs, Colorado.

ment and maturity in completing a project, and who take iniative to explore topics in creative, unique ways. They may assist teachers in naming those who pursue thoughts beyond the point at which the average students stop. Tuttle (1983) warns that teachers will overlook giftedness in their preoccupation toward neatness and punctuality. Vail (1979) sees parents as essential to the nomination process. Counselors may develop questionnaires that will enable parents to give anecdotal information about their children.

Program Approaches

School systems should examine their own unique situations and philosophies in planning services to the gifted (Tuttle and Becker, 1983). Counselors can consult with administrators in assessing the type of community, resources, values, and the nature of the student population and the staff to determine appropriate approaches. Some examples may be acceleration, grouping, or enrichment. Tolan (1985) describes her own son's success with acceleration, along with his need to choose companions from mental rather than chronological peers. Correll (1978) noting both pros and cons in groupings points out that on the one hand, gifted children are permitted to work with peers who will stimulate and challenge each other, while on the other, the system creates an educationally elite. Renzulli (1977) has developed a sequence of enrichment activities that begins with all students participating and finally allows the gifted student to pursue areas of interest in depth.

The teacher is the key to effective programs for gifted children. An in-depth inservice study is mandatory, not only for improving skills and knowledge within a particular academic discipline, but so that instructors might gain greater appreciation for the needs of the gifted (Correll, 1978). Counselors can provide training for the faculty with resources for better understanding the problems of gifted children and creating classroom environments that are supportive to their success.

Social-Emotional Issues

Frequently the behaviors indicative of outstanding mental ability create difficulties for gifted children in the school setting. In the classroom, they may become frustrated with drill and routine, and develop poor study habits. They may experience a split self concept because of their superiority and their need to be "one of the gang." Intellect is often ridiculed by classmates, so gifted students learn to hide their true abilities. Some junior high students (Sproul Junior High School, 1985) have commented:

> *Being gifted isn't that much of a gift at times. In fact, there are times when it can be a real curse. People get mad when I won't let them copy...As soon as they find out I am smart, they use me for an encyclopedia.*
> (Sandi, eighth grade)
>
> *No one really liked me because I was such a brain. No one cared how I felt. They always tried to copy from my paper and make me frustrated.*
> (Blaine, eighth grade)
>
> *It is harder to adjust because people treat you like an outsider or a freak of some sort...friends and being part of a social group are just as important to us as it is to any other students.*
> (Sheri, ninth grade)

> *My being advanced has been a hard thing for my younger brother and sister. They're expected to live up to their older brother.*
> (Erin, eighth grade)

Tuttle and Becker (1983) see self-criticism as creating difficulties for the gifted. They may develop unrealistic self expectations and too strong a desire to be perfect. This leads to refusing to attempt tasks about which they feel insecurities or chances of failure. Purkey (1970) presented studies in which feelings of inadequacy among bright underachieving children caused them to withdraw and refuse to compete.

The school counselor can help superior students to understand and accept themselves. Peer groups of students with similar interests and mental ages can meet regularly in the counseling center. In a safe, nonthreatening environment they can discuss mutual problems and even explore techniques for improving study habits. Under the counselor's direction, they can develop relaxation routines, visual imagery, and their keen sense of humor as mechanisms for coping with frustration and stress.

Gifted children cannot develop strong self concepts until they are helped to recognize their feelings, label them accordingly, and taught to use them as tools for growth (Webb, Meckstroth and Tolan, 1985). A sensitive school counselor can be a caring listener, encouraging students to voice complaints and opinions, at the same time gently shaping the behavioral expression of their powerful emotions.

Gifted individuals can also be critical and intolerant of others who do not possess similar abilities. The counselor can enhance students' attitudes in becoming more accepting of the differences between people. Betts (1986) offers suggestions for improving the interpersonal skills of the gifted, including the use of communication, interviewing, discussion and conflict resolution. Children with high cognitive abilities can use role playing as an effective means for sharpening their social skills.

Counselors can influence the future of gifted children by helping them with career exploration. Many talented students have a multitude of potentials for vocations since they excel in so many areas. Career counseling should focus on occupational choices that could bring a sense of fulfillment by being challenging, rewarding and interesting. Since society needs the contributions of these students, individual and small group counseling sessions can be vehicles for dealing with issues of social responsibility as factors in job choices (Walker, 1982). The counseling center can also be a laboratory for practical experience in the college application process, a thorough understanding of standardized testing and scholarship opportunities, and familiarity with basic course requirements in various academic fields.

Gifted young persons deserve an opportunity to achieve their full potential. As with all students in the school setting, the counselor's skill as "change agent" can make a difference in the lives of gifted children.

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Being Masculine or Feminine is Good: Being Androgynous is Better

by Andrew A. Helwig and Johannah Bealmear

Self-concept begins to form early in life, is liable to change for many years, and then tends to stabilize in the teenage or early adult years. Our self-perceptions, which determine our self-concept, are influenced by a variety of forces and factors from infancy on. Our self-perceptions regarding our gender, whether we are masculine or feminine, begin solidifying before age five. Gottfredson (1981) believes that children as young as six already are tuning in to sex roles, that is, appropriate behaviors as well as occupations for males and for females.

Sex-role socialization impacts all of us and can be defined as the process through which we "acquire and internalize the values, attitudes, and behaviors associated with femininity, masculinity, or both" (O'Neil, 1981:203). The principal sources of this socialization process are the family (parental and sibling attitudes, values and behaviors), the school, the media (e.g., television programs, newsprint, advertising), and the community in general. All of us become adults with some self-perceptions about our gender. We either think of ourselves as feminine (perhaps *very* feminine), or masculine (perhaps *very* masculine). Or, somewhere in between. As is true of so many other things in this multiple-option society, you don't have to be one or the other. Traits and characteristics, traditionally labelled masculine or feminine need not be mutually exclusive; both kinds can be found in varying degrees in the same individual (Cook, 1985).

Androgynous individuals are those who have high levels of both masculine and feminine personality traits. Their self-concepts do not include the usual masculine and feminine stereotypes. They demonstrate a blend of behaviors and attitudes some of which have typically been labelled "masculine" and others labelled "feminine." Clarey and Sanford (1982) indicate that the androgynous individual may have a better self-concept and consequently more positive mental health than those less androgynous.

This article will examine the nature and characteristics of: the feminine and the androgynous woman, the masculine and the androgynous man, and the androgynous society. Implications for counselors will be presented. The discussion of all these issues will occur within the context of the career choices and labor market behaviors that masculine, feminine, and adrogynous individuals engage in.

Feminine-Identified Women

Feminine-identified women are viewed as people oriented, nurturing, expressive of feelings and emotional. The principal role in the life of a feminine-identified woman is to be a wife and mother. These are viewed as

---

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positive characteristics and behaviors. Less positive characteristics are: being helpless, dependent, submissive, manipulative and emotional.

"Women tend to develop attitudes about themselves and others that perpetuate their lower occupational status" (Gerson & Lee, 1982:236). Stereotypical views of how women should behave have severely limited them in their ability to choose certain careers.

Many women have fears that restrict their choice of career and limit their advancement to higher status jobs. One fear is that of being responsible. Throughout history women have been supported by fathers and husbands. The image of women has been portrayed as soft, vulnerable and helpless. In order to be protected, women have given away their responsibility. Men have a sense of their own authority in making decisions, but women have authority only to nurture and support (Gerson & Lee, 1982). In their careers women have often had difficulty taking responsibility for decision making. This attitude has kept many from seeking job promotions that would make them responsible.

Many women also fear power. Women see themselves as competent in interpersonal relationships but powerless in career relationships. It is difficult for women to accept criticism or to be rejected. It is even harder for them to use their power to criticize or reject others. Typically women are given authority only under the leadership of a man. Women have not been trained or socialized in the use of power as men have been trained. For women to be viewed as "powerful" is socially unacceptable. Women who are uncomfortable with using their power often resort to manipulation in order to control others. Women also fear not being perceived as feminine. Often when women use their skills and abilities necessary for success in business, they are viewed as unfeminine. Identical behaviors by men and women are often perceived negatively for women and positively for men. For example:

A business man is aggressive.	A business woman is pushy.
A well-dressed businessman is fashionable.	A well-dressed business woman is a clothes horse.
He's careful about detail.	She's picky.
He loses his temper because he's involved in his job.	She's bitchy.
He gets depressed from work pressure.	She has menstrual tension.
He's a man of the world.	She's been around.
He's confident.	She's conceited.
He's enthusiastic.	She's emotional.
He isn't afraid to say what he thinks.	She's opinionated.
He's a stern task master.	She's difficult to work for.
He follows through.	She doesn't know when to quit.
He's firm.	She's stubborn.
He's an authority.	She's a tyrant.

(Vetterling-Braggin, 1982:86-87)

Women also fear not being a "good" wife and mother. They can work at any career of their choosing and they can go as high as their desires and abilities carry them, but only if they do not violate their primary role of wife and mother. When there is a choice between the woman's career and her husband's career, the husband's career must come first. If there is a choice between the woman's career and the children's welfare, then the children must come first. Men are seldom forced into making these decisions. Because women put priority on home and family, that means they do not work full time all of their lives. Women are often used as marginal workers to help fill in the vacancies. Their promotability suffers and they do not accrue seniority as men do. Many women consider their work temporary regardless of how long they have been doing it.

The Androgynous Woman

Traditional women are not as well suited for the demands of a successful career as are androgynous women. Androgynous females exhibit several salient characteristics which enable them to achieve their fullest potential in careers. Androgynous women are powerful and forthright. They have direct visable impact on others. They state their needs and do not back down; they are assertive. Androgynous women can accomplish the task and still be concerned about relationships. They are able to deal directly with anger, thereby rejecting feelings of suffering and victimization. They are also analytical, systematic, and take more risks with power than traditional women (Blanchard & Sargent, 1984). Androgynous women do not give up their femininity. They use the best of their feminine characteristics, such as nurturing and communication of feelings but they also develop the masculine characteristics lacking in their personalities. They choose any role that benefits them thus enhancing their opinions. At times androgynous women choose to be strong and independent and other times they choose to be dependent. There are times they feel free to be gentle and nurturing, and other times they are powerful and assertive. They can choose their rationality or their intuition to make decisions. They are able to use both the feminine and masculine traits in order to become fully human.

Masculine-Identified Men

Masculine-identified men have many traits that are perceived as positive. Men are aggressive, task-oriented, powerful, autonomous and tough-minded. Many masculine-identified males view themselves as being superior to women and have an innate sense that because they are male, they have a right to have all their needs fulfilled. They are also perceived as the financial providers of the home. From early childhood traditional men are taught the value of team work. Emotionally, they are able to deal with anger and avoid becoming victimized. Masculine-identified men also possess traits that are viewed negatively such as the lack of ability to express feelings of love, pain, joy, loneliness, or dependency. Masculine-identified men have not developed their ability to communicate feelings. Also, they are not comfortable with touching or being close to one another (Blanchard & Sargent, 1984).

An overriding fear of masculine-identified men is the fear of being perceived as feminine which they view as being weak, dependent, emotional and submissive. By exposing their feminine side, men fear they will be devalued as women are devalued (O'Neil, 1981).

More specifically masculine-identified men also have a fear of expressing emotions. They are taught to be strong and completely dependent upon themselves. Men who cry are viewed as weak and helpless. Because men are taught not to communicate deep personal feelings, they must handle their emotional needs inwardly. They have not been socialized to communicate their needs for praise, or touching or expression of gratitude. They are taught to be objective, impersonal and their skill of listening empathically is not well developed.

Masculine-identified men have not felt the need to be the nurturing one at work or home. For a masculine-identified man to admit that he has needs or wants emotional nurturing in his career would be viewed as inappropriate. Because of our sexual stereotyping, men have not been allowed to fulfill their needs or develop a sensitivity to the needs of others. Masculine-identified men must keep the appearance of being on top of every situation. This takes its toll on men both physically and emotionally.

Masculine-identified men have been socialized to be the financial provider and not the nurturer of the family. Because the responsibility of nurturing the children has been left to the women, men do not feel the same responsibility toward children as women do. Consequently, men miss the joys of caring for the young infant and the bonding that forms between child and parent. When divorce occurs, many men feel their only obligation is to meet the financial needs and not the emotional needs of the child. As O'Neil (1981) suggests, one result of the rigid sex role socialization process is that men are also oppressed and restricted and thus limited in their potential to be fully functioning human beings.

The Androgynous Man

Androgynous men share in the responsibility of nurturing the family and raising the children. They spend quality time with the children and take them to the dentist or attend meetings with their teachers. They share in the responsibility of taking time off work when the children are ill. An androgynous father helps his wife develop her career by sharing the responsibilities of parenthood.

The labor market generally and big business specifically, is relatively non-people oriented. However, the need for interpersonal skills is as critical now as ever. "People skills" have often been relegated to the feminine domain. Since the androgynous male accepts and expresses emotions, he is more comfortable and adept at interpersonal communication. He has broadened his range of responses to affection, trust, openness, and intuition. Consequently he nurtures and supports colleagues and subordinates, and balances power with concern for people (Blanchard & Sargent, 1984). In short, androgynous males promote interactions between superiors and subordinates, and between leaders and members of work teams. Especially in management positions, strong interpersonal and communication skills are essential.

Androgynous men do not give up being masculine. They use the best of masculine characteristics such as aggressiveness and tough-mindedness and develop the feminine characteristics lacking in their personalities. They choose those roles that fit them thus expanding their options. There are times androgynous men choose to be strong and independent and other times they may choose to be dependent. At times they are gentle and nurturing, and at other times they choose to be powerful and assertive. Their decision making may be both rationally and intuitively based. They are able to blend both the feminine and masculine traits in order to become fully human.

An Androgynous Society

Both feminine-identified women and masculine-identified men are limited in their abilities to succeed in their careers. Their views of how they should behave and their socialized self-perceptions limit their choices of career. Once in their careers, these same behaviors and self-perceptions influence and limit their decision making. Feminine-identified women may sabotage their efforts for promotion because of their fears of responsibility, fears of power, fears of not being perceived as feminine and their conflict with being a good wife and mother. Masculine-identified men may hurt their careers because of poor interpersonal relationships with their coworkers or subordinates. These men have fears of expressing emotions, fears of communicating feelings and fears of being nurturing and supportive of their fellow workers. The androgynous female and the androgynous male have overcome these fears.

Androgynous individuals are not limited in what they think the "appropriate" behaviors should be. They use their feminine characteristics to nurture, support and communicate. They use their masculine traits to be powerful and assertive and rational in their decisions. Our society will more fully develop to its highest potential if both men and women become androgynous. If only women become androgynous, the balance of power will still be in the male domain. Women's efforts toward androgyny are hampered by men's traditional stereotypes of women. For men to become more androgynous, they need to let go of the fear of being perceived as feminine or, reframe the traditional traits of women from negative to positive. Obviously, if feminine characteristics were viewed by society in general as positive, men would have little to fear if they exhibited "feminine" traits.

In an adrogynous career world, androgynous women would do any kind of work, would be treated as equals with men, and would earn the same pay as men. Androgynous men would choose any career, even "women's" work, and would demonstrate strong interpersonal skills with a sense of caring and concern for others in addition to appropriate assertive and leadership behaviors.

Implications For Counselors

Changing society into becoming more androgynous is neither easy nor quick. Yet it is becoming more so primarily because women have eschewed the "traditional" role given them. By asserting themselves into nontraditional roles and performing competently in them, they are raising the consciousness of men who can now see another side to women. To make dramatic gains toward androgyny, the sex role socialization process in our society would have to change. Although this will occur slowly, Cook (1985) argues that attitudes and behaviors can be changed despite earlier sex role socialization. For adults, she believes assertiveness training, communication skills activities and awareness of other needs such as nurturance can be helpful. Gerson and Lee (1982) describe a workshop for women which focused on goal clarification including career goals and expectations through the use of guided fantasy. Their workshop also included role playing to stimulate re-socialization around such themes as authority, power, nurturance, criticism, competition and support.

For students at the elementary and secondary level, Chusmir (1983) promotes awareness activities. Such activities can focus on sex role attitudes and self-concept. The use of role models who are non-traditional, both men and women, can stimulate adolescents to think of other options and possibilities.

Unless men also make changes, an androgynous society will not occur. As for women, without changes in the sex role socialization process, boys will continue to grow up with traditional views of "appropriate" masculine and feminine characteristics and behaviors. O'Neil (1981) suggests a multi-faceted approach to encourage androgyny in men. Educational and preventive programming using a variety of media is one approach. Consciousness-raising activities to explore fear of femininity and gender role conflict is another. He also argues for more research data and believes that counselors and psychologists must begin modeling these new gender behaviors.

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Assisting European Students in our Schools

by Barbara Stiltner

> *"We'll be here for the year. We're on an exchange program with the University. The children had some English in school but they are a bit shy when speaking."*

As a junior high school counselor in Boulder, Colorado, every year I had a few students who came from a European country to spend a year or two living in Boulder. Many high schools also have foreign exchange students who spend a semester or more in attendance. As a counselor, I've often felt somewhat frustrated in my attempts to help these students and their families. It was difficult to know what they needed or what their previous experience had been. After working for two years in Germany, Belgium and England and studying cross cultural counseling, I have developed some insights that may be helpful in working with these foreign students. These insights are drawn from readings in cross cultural counseling, from discussions with American students attending English schools and from my own experiences in interaction with other cultures.

A Theory of Immigrant Adjustment

Persons who spend a limited amount of time living in another culture are often called sojourners. Their experiences in adjusting to their new culture are described in Oberg's theory of immigrant adjustment (Arredondo-Dowd, 1981). The theory describes stages which many immigrants experience living in a new culture.

The initial stage of euphoria and fascination begins when the person first learns he/she will be living in another country. The immigrant is excited about living in the new culture and is anxious to learn all about it. After this initial period, the immigrant goes through a phase of disillusionment when the everyday aspects of life become difficult. The simplest task may become a major undertaking. Examples of these tasks include figuring out where to go to purchase daily necessities, learning to use new telephone systems, understanding different languages and customs and using different currencies. The immigrant often feels unsure of his/her abilities and confused about the norms of the host country. In many persons, this disillusionment progresses to anger and hostility towards the country. This anger and hostility can be expressed toward the persons in the host culture or can be generalized towards oneself in frustration in not learning to handle the cultural differences more quickly.

Fortunately, most persons reach stages of positive adjustment. The first of these is the ability to accept the cultural differences and learn to survive in

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the culture. At this stage, individuals feel more comfortable and have enough information to accomplish the daily living tasks. They learn to handle the language and cultural differences. Following this adjustment, a stage of genuine biculturalism may occur where the immigrant becomes a full participant in the host culture and feels as comfortable there as in the original home culture. Of course, to become bicultural one must be fluent in the host culture language.

The final stage is a reverse cultural shock when the immigrant returns to the original host country and finds that there are aspects of the country of immigration which he/she prefers. Many Americans who have lived overseas for a period of time comment that upon their return they find parts of American culture offensive. Brislin (1981) also reports that the returnee misses the challenges of living in a foreign culture and finds that others are not interested in hearing about his/her experiences overseas. In discussion of this progression with numerous Americans living overseas, the validity of the description has been confirmed repeatedly.

Obviously, being aware of this progression can assist the counselor in understanding the student and helping the student and family to move through these stages. The counselor can be helpful both in accepting the feelings which occur naturally and providing the student and family with basic information to assist them in understanding our culture.

Some Cultural Differences

What are some of the differences between the European cultures and the American culture which may cause difficulty for the student? There are many daily customs which vary slightly but may cause confusion. Several examples may be helpful. Of course, most of us are familiar with the English custom of queuing. The English form polite and courteous lines and patiently wait their turns. In contrast, the Germans have different methods in different situations, sometimes just bunching and other times systematically taking turns. Often in getting a taxi, the person closest to the taxi gets it whether that person has been waiting longer or not.

In Germany, when one enters a room, store or train compartment one is expected to greet the persons already there, who are probably strangers, and then say *"Wiedersehen"* when leaving, whether or not any other conversation has occurred.

Of course, the language differences also form cultural barriers. There are some words which can not be translated from German to English and vice versa. Even persons who are relatively fluent in English may have difficulty expressing some ideas. They may also express their ideas in ways which may seem awkward or even offensive. We need to be careful about assuming that they know the full implications in English of what they are saying and conversely, we need to be aware that our intent may be misunderstood through the filters of a different culture. Even students coming from England are not immune to language differences. Communication with them is easier because of the common language but there are many idiosyncratic differences between American and British English. It is often said that England and America are two countries divided by a common language.

Another difference between the European cultures and the American culture is a sense of formality in interpersonal relationships. Europeans tend to form fewer close friendships than Americans, but these tend to be long lasting and very close relationships. The languages frequently have different forms of personal pronouns for intimate relationships and for acquaintances.

This distinction also carries over into the use of first names. Several times I have introduced my husband to couples using his first name and the response indicated that the use of first names was not appropriate in that context.

Each country has a distinctive network of stores which offer different types of goods. Within each neighborhood, it is usually possible to walk to stores which provide for daily basic needs in terms of food and supplies. Many Europeans still shop on a frequent basis at local stores. Even in England, an American may be quite confused about which store to go to for which item and conversely a person from England will be confused in America. Even the comparatively simple task of buying school supplies can be a real adventure.

Different countries have different ways of structuring the school, the school curriculum and the roles in the school. In Germany, for example, school is held six days a week and is dismissed in the early afternoon. Students have a great deal of homework to do in the evening. Also in many German schools, the students stay in the same room during the day and the teachers move. Many European schools have not defined the role of the counselor.

Suggestions

There are a number of things which counselors can do to ease the transition of students into American schools and culture. Although each of these suggestions may take time on the part of the counselor, the probable payoff is great in terms of helping the student make a smoother adjustment and in contributing to international relationships.

Most Europeans living in the United States have some fluency in English. However, they may not understand subtleties in our language and may not always comprehend every idea expressed. Therefore, providing written information about the school can be very helpful. Student handbooks often provide valuable information which can assist these parents and students. Such simple factors as daily schedules and vacation schedules should also be provided in written form. Of course, each country has its own schedule of vacations making this a potential source of confusion.

Information about school supplies should also be provided. It may be helpful to make suggestions about where to purchase recommended school supplies. The whole isue of where to go for what items may be very confusing to persons who have just arrived in the community.

A useful technique is to ask the student to describe briefly the school which he/she attended in the home community. This helps the counselor to understand how the current school is different from the student's home school and determine what aspects of the school program to describe. In addition, rapport is built between the student and the counselor and the counselor learns about other cultures.

When any new student enters a school, it is often helpful to provide him/her with a student who serves as a guide for the first day or two while the counselor sets up a schedule. The new student follows the student guide's schedule and receives orientation from the guide. The student guide should receive some training in how to support the new student and ideally have some facility in the new student's native language. When new students are told of this policy, they usually heave a sigh of immense relief that they will have help in learning their way around the new school.

Another resource in assisting the foreign student is to maintain a list of persons in the community who fluently speak different languages and who would be willing to act as interpreters or listeners when foreign students need assistance. Such a person can provide the little bit of extra help which can make the difference in a successful school adjustment.

Of course, the role of the counselor should be explained to the student and parents. Suggestions of ways the counselor can help them in adjusting to the school should be carefully delineated. Often it is a good idea to check with foreign students and their parents after the first week or two in school to see if they have any concerns or questions about the school.

The choice of classes for the student is a crucial element in his/her positive adjustment to the school environment. Many of these students will be returning to their home country after a year or two. In these cases, it is important to allow the student and parents as much latitude as possible in selecting courses which will enable the student to meet educational requirements in the home community. The counselor's role is to provide information about the possible choices and assist the student and parent in wise decision making. Students who are not proficient in English will need assistance in selecting courses which will encourage them in language development. The student who plans to stay in the United States and finish his/her education within the American system will need help in understanding the graduation requirements and the available options.

Finally, the other students in the school may need encouragement in understanding and accepting the foreign student. This should be done in a way which does not draw uncomfortable attention to the visiting student. One method is to work closely with the foreign language teachers and encourage them to share information about cultural behaviors associated with the language they teach. Generally, if adolescents understand why a student is behaving differently from them, they will accept the behavior rather than make life difficult for the student. The counselor should be observant of the foreign student's culture.

Of course, Europeans are accustomed to traveling in countries other than their own and often adjust more quickly than Americans to cultural differences. If we invest time in working with foreign students, we can also learn a great deal about cultural adjustment from them.

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A College Career Planning System: A Course Model

by Billy D. Hardgrave

Robin Swain (1984) states the case for a college career class and provides a description of the course at the University of Illinois. Dr. Swain states:

"The course is structured to achieve five goals:

1. Participation in a career/life planning process that gives students the skills for and helps them make progress toward making career and education decisions.
2. Acquisition of information and skills necessary for ongoing life planning.
3. Development of an understanding of the theory underlying occupational choice and career development.
4. Integration of current career choice or choices with the theory and process presented.
5. Growth in cognitive development (as defined by Perry and adapted by Knefelkamp)."

Swain's article also discusses all elements necessary in producing an academically sound College Career Planning course. The model addresses three major areas: the individual, the environment, and the educational and occupational information necessary in deciding upon a career. Each major area consists of exercises and standardized inventories that assist individuals in achieving the above stated five objectives of the course.

Another issue facing colleges and universities with career planning courses is the grading system. Rex D. Filer (1986) addresses this in his article in *The Career Development Quarterly*. Universities with career planning classes often do not accept transfer credits in career planning from other schools because they are not sure the class is graded as an academic class. The questions surrounding this issue are: Does a student have to make a career decision, declare a major and actively pursue these decisions in order to receive an "A"? If a person attends all sessions, but does not reach any career decision, can they receive an "A"? How rigorous do the goals and objectives need to be in order to receive an "A"? And the argument goes on. In the final analysis, the question seems to be, "What does an "A" in career planning signify?"

Healy and Mourton (1987) state, "Career development is a major objective of community college students, and programs to promote it need to be a major priority of community colleges." If community colleges are going to offer career planning to assist their students, and these students may become students at four year institutions, then the credits should transfer to a four year school as an academically acceptable course.

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Purpose of this Article

The purpose of this article is to provide information about a Career Planning System that incorporates all of the elements required to conduct an academically acceptable college career planning class. It includes meeting the objectives outlined by Robin Swain (1984) and a grading system that provides an accurate picture of a student's progress in career planning.

The System

The Career Planning System currently used at Aims Community College (Rodriguez & Hardgrave, 1986) starts with an introduction to the subject of career planning. Sam Kirk (1986) describes career planning as a developmental process. This process occurs in stages or steps from a current job or student status quo to career selection or career change. Each stage change is accompanied by transition stress. The average period for the entire process is nine months. This type of information is extremely valuable to the beginning career planning student. Students often feel stress about being indecisive, and they need to understand that a ten to thirteen week course will not necessarily end the career planning process. This process is emphasized and the stress factor explained in such a way that the student is not surprised or overly concerned about indecision at various points throughout the process.

The introduction portion of the class also includes a personal introduction by the members of the group. The class is limited to twenty participants at a time who will work closely together throughout the academic quarter. They must be brought together as strangers and organized into a working, sharing and productive group within two hours. This is accomplished by using an exercise that helps all participants learn the names of all other participants along with some significant piece of personal information the individual is willing to share.

During the balance of the course, the career planning student will be asked to participate in the following four aspects of career planning using the past, present and future to gather information:

Self Awareness
Career Exploration
Career Preparation
Entrance into an Occupational Field

The Self Awareness area has the student considering the various parts of their lives, i.e. interests, personality, aptitudes, values, needs, areas of motivation, significant others, salary requirements and role identification.

The Past

Students first look at their past lives and determine how the past effects the decision making process. Games, exercises and guided imagery that stimulate individuals to look beyond the surface into their various need areas are used along with structured inventories. These exercises are processed individually and in small groups to allow feedback to be given and received. Students are encouraged to share information in small groups, but they are allowed to determine what they will share and what they will keep private. At times, examining the past is painful, but if some event or repressed pain is keeping the individual from reaching their full potential, it needs to be acknowledged and dealt with in therapy. The career planning instructor should either be a certified counselor or have referral sources available for such individuals.

While the personal past is important, it is not the only area of the past that needs to be examined. A work history and attitudes about various jobs held are extremely important. Not only does this serve as a value clarification exercise, but it starts participants thinking about skill areas and a work history for future resume construction. After completing several role identification exercises, students are asked to summarize all of the material by listing three personal characteristics that must be considered when researching a career of interest. They are also asked to determine the amount of time they are willing to apply toward career planning during the academic quarter. The grade they receive is based upon the amount of work completed. They must determine this during the first four hours of instruction and complete a contract. Once contracted, neither the grades or the amount of work can be changed. They are required to make a commitment and stick to it! Simple decisions are required from the very beginning, but the decisions required become more complex and involved as the course proceeds.

The Present

An interest inventory is administered, scored, profiled and interpreted to the group. Each student is encouraged to discuss their individual inventory with the instructor and members of their group. Career Exploration and research are taught using the highest areas of interest first. Students are introduced to Government publications, i.e. *The Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT), and *The Occupational Outlook Handbook* (OOH), as well as private sources that describe various occupations and provide pertinent information about each. These sources come in various forms, i.e. films, books, career pamphlets, computer programs, microfiche, cassette tapes, etc. Each student completes a minimal amount of research in different sources based upon the grade selected. This information is later compared with a standardized personality profile and an aptitude test.

At mid-term, each student is required to write a research paper on a career development theory of their choice. They must describe the theory and then relate it to their own personal situation. This provides cognitive development as well as contributing to self awareness.

Support subjects, i.e. understanding stress and stress management, time management, resume construction and interviewing are also taught. Each student is given the opportunity to apply for a make believe job, completing both an application and a resume. Application screening committees choose three or four candidates to interview by hiring committees made up of the students not selected by the initial screening committees. This provides an opportunity for all students to participate in the interviewing process. These interviews are video taped and reviewed by the entire class. Comments are given to the interviewees and the interviewers alike.

Another set of exercises address the problems of the influence of significant others in the career development process. Students are affected by parents, siblings, spouse, peers and a host of other people. Some of the results are very positive, while others lead to self-defeating behaviors (Chamberlain, 1978). The group attempts to help each individual become aware of their self-defeating behaviors (SDB) without actually attempting to solve the problems in group. Each individual is asked to select one or two SDB's to discuss with the instructor in private. In this interview, action or a referral can be facilitated.

The Future

Obviously in a career planning class, the ultimate goal is to inspire and instruct students to reach out beyond the present and into the future. Written goals, both long term and immediate, are required of every career planning student. Instruction in decision making and goal setting is given, but more importantly, excercises that stimuate students to dream and fantasize about the future are conducted. A great deal of motivational material is introduced. The student is required to address money issues and identify their own needs level. The student is required to reach out beyond what is possible at the moment for what they would like to have in the future. After goals are established, realistic ways of achieving them are then discussed with the instructor and members of the group. Human potential is discussed and new self-defeating behaviors may even be discovered as a result of these activities.

Summation

At the end of the course, students are asked to review their exercise workbooks and summarize the information discovered about themselves and various career fields. They are asked to compare personal traits with the occupations of interest researched. This consists of comparing six/eight occupational choices with 19 personal traits and abilities. They are then given a final examination covering important information from the entire quarter. Since they have contracted for a grade, the final is a pass/fail examination. If failed, the student must study and take another form of the exam. This insures a required amount of cognition has occured as a result of the career planning class. The last step to completing the course is a debriefing with the instructor or the Final Report. This report helps the student organize materials and review the goals and objectives decided upon by the participant with the career counselor. The final report can be presented orally or in writing. It allows the career counselor to provide feedback and direction if necessary. This report consists of the following:

1. A comparison of the status of career planning before and after the course. (Exactly where is the student in the career planning process?)
2. What more do you need from your instructor in order to complete the career planning process?
3. A report of LAB activities completed and their usefulness in career planning.
4. A report on a networking or informational interview conducted outside of the school environment.
5. Written goals and objectives.
6. An evaluation of the career planning process to date.

Conclusions

The Aims Career Planning System provides an atmosphere that allows college students to examine and explore. It provides both standardized and self-awareness type exercises that facilitate learning and the career planning process. Career development is studied and intellectual stimulation provided as well as personal growth. This course is taught out of the Counseling Center by Counseling personnel. This enables the student and the instructor to continue their relationship even after the course is completed. Students have responded favorably to the experience, and an informal review of records indicate that the attrition rate from Aims is lower among students who have completed career planning. Robin Swain's data shows grade point

averages are higher, stress is lower and employment experiences are better among students who complete a college career planning class.

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Colleges Compared by High School Counselors

by Gary Nearpass and Verne Keenan

One of our responsibilities as high school guidance counselors is to help students select appropriate colleges and universities. High schools vary in the number of their students who pursue post high school education. The options are subject to varied considerations, among them being socio-economic, geographic, and academic influences. With these circumstances in mind, have you ever wondered how other Colorado guidance counselors view the colleges and universities that you recommend to your students? This article gives you pictorial evidence of the views of some of your colleagues.

There have been frequent attempts to rate or rank colleges and universities on such criteria as 'quality of undergraduate programs (Gourman, 1980), number of students who subsequently earn their doctorate degrees (Stanley-Frederick, 1982), and school environments (Moos, 1979). In addition to this type of report, studies of quality have been completed by such groups as The Society for Research into Higher Education (British), The American Council on Education, The Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and Education of Teachers, and The National Science Foundation. It is also increasingly popular for commonly read newstand magazines to feature such reports. *U.S. News & World Report* (11/28/83, 11/25/85), *Change* (4/84), and *Money* (5/86), are only a few examples of recent magazine articles on the topic.

The present study applies a statistical technique known as multidimensional scaling (MDS) to pursue the factors considered by Colorado high school guidance counselors in making college and university assessments. MDS provides a mechanism for collecting comparison data measured by pairwise judgements of similarities among events or objects; then reducing these data to relatively simple geometric displays. For example, a 1974 study at The University of Wisconsin utilized MDS as a tool for ranking professors (Subkoviak & Levin, 1974). First, each professor was compared to every other professor in the study with the judgement criteria provided. Then the MDS results were displayed pictorially on a coordinate graph revealing the structure of the comparison data. In the current study, two independent groups of high school guidance counselors provided ratings to address these questions:

a) How similarly did a sample of high school counselors view specific Colorado colleges and universities? and,

b) What identifiable features or dimensions can we discern that help us to understand how these counselors made their assignments of degrees of similarity?

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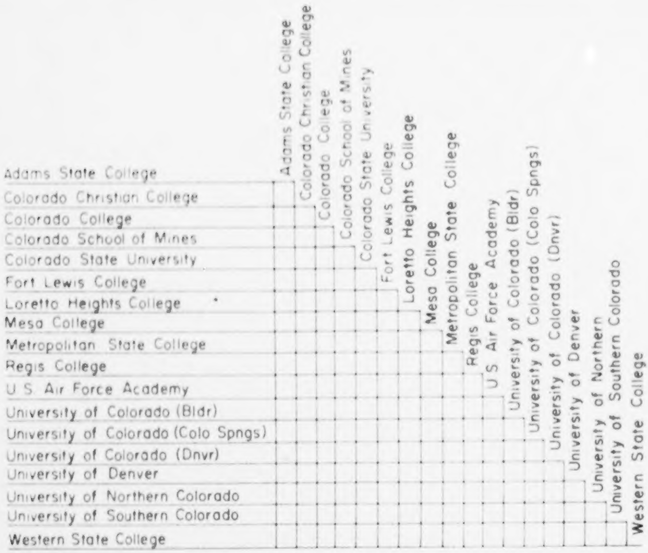
Method

The data analyzed by MDS come from a matrix of similarity values, in this case assigned values of colleges and university similarities. There are eighteen four-year post secondary schools in Colorado, providing 153 pairs. The similarities were based on a five-point scale with 1 = very similar and 5 = dissimilar, and the numerals from 1 to 5 filled the 153 cells of the matrix. The term "similar" was not defined, nor were any criteria for measuring similarity provided. The conceptualization of college and university similarity, and the discovery of latent criteria used by each counselor, were as important as the numbers assigned. The directions for completing the grid explained this lack of specific definition and direction and directed the participants to "judge the similarity in each comparison any way you deem appropriate."

Initially in this study, the 13 guidance counselors at Cherry Creek High School were asked to complete the grid shown in Figure 1. This is a public school in suburban Denver with 3700 students and an 80 percent rate of postgraduate schooling. Next, 24 different Colorado high school counselors were asked to complete the same grid while attending a week-long state college visitation tour, sponsored by The Colorado Consortium of State Colleges. These counselors represented 19 Colorado schools and had varying degrees of familiarity with the 18 colleges and universities. Although all but three of these counselors were from Colorado's eastern slope, their schools were spread from Ft. Collins to Rocky Ford, and from Denver to Ft. Morgan. Their counseling roles varied from small rural high schools to large urban set-



	Adams State College	Colorado Christian College	Colorado College	Colorado School of Mines	Colorado State University	Fort Lewis College	Loretto Heights College	Mesa College	Metropolitan State College	Regis College	U.S. Air Force Academy	University of Colorado (Bldr)	University of Colorado (Colo Spngs)	University of Colorado (Dnvr)	University of Denver	University of Northern Colorado	University of Southern Colorado	Western State College
Adams State College																		
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Figure 1. Survey grid to compare Colorado 4-year colleges and universities. Participants assign 1 through 5 to each comparison with 1 = very similar, and 5 = dissimilar.

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tings. The same five-point scale and the same instructions were used for ranking and tabulation. Third, the "college counselor" at Cherry Creek High School was interviewed individually about his ratings. A substantial portion of his work load is dedicated specifically to keeping abreast of current college information and serving as a resource person to the other counselors as well as to students and parents. He is considered by many Colorado counselors to be one of their colleagues most familiar with the state's colleges and universities. His comments illuminated our interpretations, and his ratings were analyzed seperately. Any such analysis with a sample of one is necessarily less stable than the group analyses, and is included for comparison to results from the two large samples.

Results

The data analyzed were the numerical similarity judgements assigned by the counselors for the pairs of colleges and universities shown in Figure 1. They were tabulated and submitted to the MDS procedure which makes dimensional representations of the data on a graph with each college or university represented by a point. The greater the degree of judged similarity, for all counselors in a group, the closer together the two schools are on the graph. The graphs in Figures 2, 3, and 4 represent the placements resulting from the similarity judgements by the Cherry Creek counselors, the Colorado counselor sample, and the extracted Cherry Creek High School college counselor. In the analysis a "stress index" is computed by comparing the

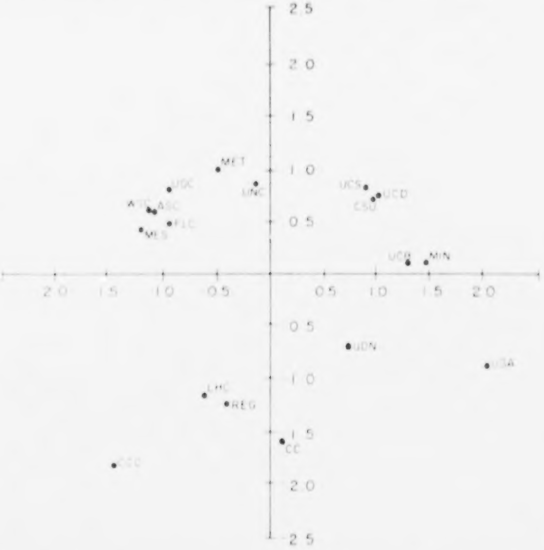

Figure 2. Two dimensional configuration of Colorado college and university similarity resulting from assignments by Cherry Creek High School counselors (coordinate criterion are determined by the reader).

numerical value of similarity and the geometrical relationship on the graph. The points are then rearranged to reduce stress, or difference, with consideration given to the distance between points and the direction from each other and from the axes. These rearrangements are called iterations and can be repeated as long as substantial progress is being made towards a "perfect fit."

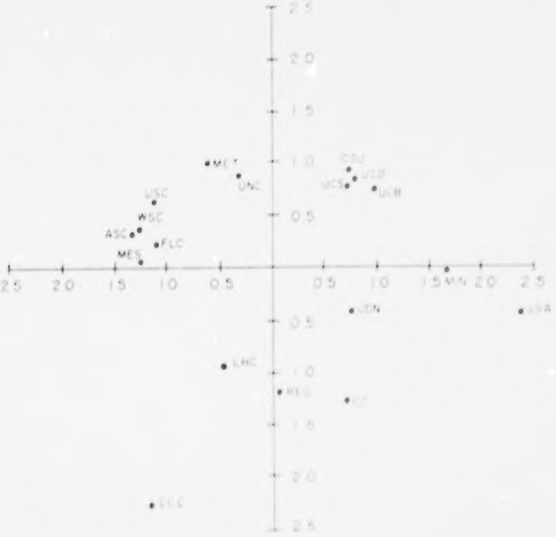

Figure 3. Two-dimensional configuration of Colorado college and university similarity resulting from assignments by the statewide sample of counselors.

The stress index in each of these analyses indicated that the three-dimensional solutions were using only a very small amount of information that was not already in the two-dimensional solutions pictured in this report. Interpretation of the meanings of the dimensions is, of course, the job of the experimenter and of the reader.

Discussion

Interpretation of the resulting geometic display is based on a number of observations. Among them are position of points in quadrants (relationship to axes), distance of points from one another, clusters of points, and order of points (straight lines, circles, and so forth). Shepard (1972) suggests that it may also be valuable to notice where points are not, as well as where they are.

In a 1978 handbook on MDS, Kruskal introduced his discussion of interpretation by stating, "The process of interpreting the configuration is the central step in many applications, and is best learned by active participation" (Kruskal & Wish, 1978, p. 12). Although it is possible to make many observations about apparent interrelationships from the resulting configurations, there will always be one more observation possible, and one more possible explanation for the position of the points with additional perusal or by a new observer. In the interpretation of these configurations the authors will make some observations and suggest some explanations to demonstrate the interpretation techniques discussed. Then the reader is encouraged to review the configurations in Figures 2, 3, and 4, and to make additional observations about interrelationships and to generate additional and alternative explanations for the relative positions of points.

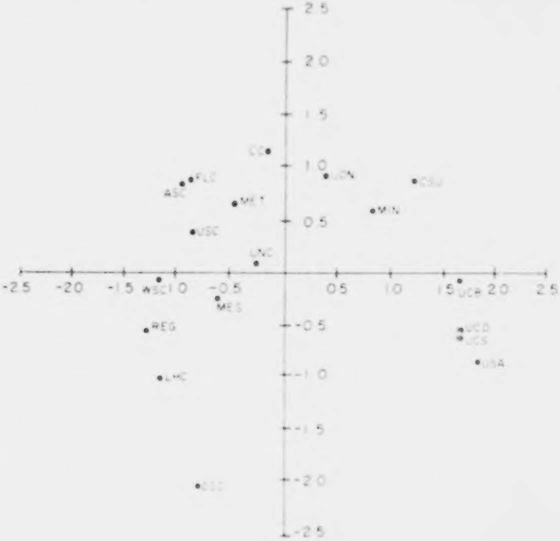

Figure 4. Two-dimensional configuration of Colorado college and university similarity resulting from assignments by the Cherry Creek High School college counselor.

First, by observing the alignment on the vertical axis, it appears that public versus private school is a criterion used by both samples. Colorado Christian (CCC), Loretto Heights (LHC), Regis (REG), Colorado College (CC) and the University of Denver (UDN) are all in the lower halves of the displays. Following the private school line suggests that religious affiliation also is a factor, since the church-affiliated share the same quadrant. The horizontal dimension is less clear, suggesting different meanings to different viewers. Size and academic standards have been mentioned.

Another interpretation technique is to look for clusters. There is an obvious grouping in each configuration of the smaller public schools like Ft. Lewis College (FLC), Adams State College (ASC), Western State College (WSC), Metropolitan State College (MET), University of Southern Colorado (USC), and Mesa College (MES). The University of Northern Colorado (UNC) hovers around that cluster but at a distance, probably due in part to its much larger size.

Colorado Christian College (CCC) and The United State Air Force Academy (USA) tend to stand away at extremes. These schools are both

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unique, but in different ways. The Air Force Academy is unique because of its admissions programs and its affiliation with the United States Air Force. Although most people would not think of the Academy as private, people we have spoken with are not surprised by its location. Colorado Christian College is a very small school with a strong religious affiliation, and relatively little else is known about it.

There appears to be another looser cluster with The University of Colorado at Boulder (UCB), at Denver (UCD), and at Colorado Springs (UCS), Colorado State University (CSU), and perhaps the Colorado School of Mines (MIN) and The University of Denver (UDN). There are a number of potential explanations for that cluster. Perhaps the programs are similar in rigor, perhaps they are similar in admissions requirements, perhaps it is noticeable that these colleges are all located on Colorado's eastern slope.

If one compares the raw data and the configuration from the single subject sample, one of the shortcomings of both single-subject research and MDS becomes evident. Although the University of Colorado at Colorado Springs and the U.S. Air Force Academy are ranked low in similarity by the groups, they appear quite close in proximity for the single subject configuration. This could occur because of the relative similarity of each of these schools to a third, fourth, or fifth school. An example would be to explain the close proximity in a similar configuration of the words "mine" and "pepper." Initially these two seem very dissimilar. However, "salt" and "mine" would probably be though of as words that go together, as would "salt" and "pepper." Therefore, "mine" and "pepper" might appear relatively close on a coordinate graph. The instances of inconsistency in individual counselor ratings are assumed to balance out revealing the more reliable outcomes of group data. Now, with these observations, potential explanations, and cautions, it will be valuable for each reader to review each pf the configurations as a context in which your own criteria may be assessed.

Conclusion

The reliability of the present study could be checked by running more samples of counselors, generating more computer configurations, then addressing the question; to what extent can a computer-derived configuration be duplicated? The authors would encourage the duplication of this study and additional studies with broader samples. College and university ratings by high school seniors, parents of high school seniors, or college personnel such as admissions counselors could produce valuable results. Specific subjects ranking specific colleges could be informative. An example might be to have the public colleges and universities rated for similarity by the groups who decide on state funding: the state legislators, the members of the Joint Budget Committee, and the members of The Colorado Commission on Higher Education.

The reliability of single subject research is demonstrated when Figure 4 is compared individually to Figures 2 and 3. The differences in relative positions of points are sizeable. However, when the graphs of the two larger samples are compared it becomes evident that the similarities are more than coincidental. Presumedly, larger samples of Colorado counselors would generate graphs that were even more similar.

It was noted that it is difficult to declare or to weigh one single criterion that these high school counselors used to rank these Colorado colleges and universities. The similarity judgements are intuitive and probably more holistic than overt rankings on explicit dimensions might be. The results, however, are informative for high school counselors, and potentially useful for college personnel. They seem to characterize schools in a way that is meaningful but not evaluative. For example, college personnel could benefit from knowing that the image of their college, as viewed by high school counselors, is not the image they have of themselves. That may be favorable to the college, or may suggest that changes need to be made in their representation since high school counselors in turn represent these colleges to high school students and parents. But in these representations there is no best or worst institution, only different institutions. The results also suggest that multidimensional scaling is a valuable research tool and a valuable addition to the repertoire of educational researchers.

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An Analysis of Six Variables Which Make School A Negative Experience for Hispanic Students

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by Peggy L. Sheldon and Juan Ramirez

Introduction

Much has been written lately about what is wrong with public education. Teachers are not paid enough, teachers are not smart enough, the curriculum is not difficult enough and discipline is not tough enough. Yet with all the criticisms and all the frantic attempts to bring the system up to par, little has been said about the effect that our education system has on minority students. It is the purpose of this paper to look at several variables in public education and how these variables affect the Hispanic student. The variables discussed are testing, ability grouping, teacher-pupil interaction, counseling, curriculum, and language difference. As each variable is presented, examples will be drawn from a school district (RHS), a teacher training institution (NCU), and a counselor training program (HSC), all located in the southwestern part of the United States.

Before discussing how the educational system has dealt with Hispanic students, several characteristics must first be presented. The word "Hispanic" has begun to replace other terms such as "Mexican-American," "Latino," or "Spanish-surnamed," which did not currectly define or identify this ethnic group. "Hispanic" replaces terms that indicate ethnicity ("Spanish origin"), family name ("Spanish-surnames"), or ancestry ("Spanish American") (Sue, 1981).

According to the 1980 U.S. census, there are 14,605,883 Hispanic persons in the United States, and Hispanic persons represent 6.4% of the population. This is an increase from the 1970 census, when the 9,072,602 Hispanic persons represented 4.5% of the population ("Useful Data," 1983). Eighty-seven percent of Hispanic persons in the United States live in the southwest—Colorado, New Mexico, Texas, Arizona and California (Sue, 1981).

While the education system is "open to all," educational opportunities for the Hispanic population are often limited in comparison to the general population. For Hispanic males 25 or older, the average education is 9.3 years, compared to 12.2 years for the general population. Only 32.6% of Hispanic students graduate from high school, while 56.4% of the general population complete their high school education. Some 19.5% of Hispanic persons complete five years of school or less, compared to 13.5 and 5 for the general population (Sue, 1981).

While Hispanic college enrollment doubled between 1972 and 1981, Hispanic students only accounted for 5% of all college students in 1981. Over half of the Hispanic students who enter college never complete their degree or program, compared to 34% for non-Hispanic students (*Congres-*

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sional Hispanic Caucus, 1984).

Testing

Testing is one area of education that has drawn a lot of criticism (e.g., Martinez, 1977) in recent years. The issue that has raised the most criticism among minority groups is administering standardized tests normed on White middle-class students to minority students who may not have the same life experiences or language (Hernandez, Wagner, and Haug, 1976).

Each student must have been exposed to the same experiences for a test to validly measure what the child knows about the concept being tested (e.g., Hernandez, et al., 1976). For example, Hispanic students who have no electricity in their homes may not be able to understand questions dealing with the concept. To close the testing gap, Jensen (1980) has suggested that standardized tests be given to minority students in the language in which they are most fluent. This seems like an excellent idea until one realizes that knowing the language will still not help the student who has no concept of electricity. There is also the problem of translating the standardized tests correctly, and making sure the Spanish used in the test is in a dialect the students understand (Martinez, 1977).

The worth of test scores lies in how they are used. Test scores must be properly interpreted and that interpretation used to further students' educational needs (Hernandez, et al., 1976). Scores merely placed in students' files are of little use. Similarly, it is meaningless to tell parents or students that a student is reading at the 3.7 grade level in the 8th grade without doing something about that reading score.

Often career counseling emphasizes test scores and how these scores predict a student's success in a particular career. Students are told, "I'm afraid you'll never make it in college; you'd better do something else," or "You don't have the ability to be a teacher, but there's always the vo-tech school." Because many standardized tests are culturally biased against Hispanic students, they are more likely to be victims of this type of career counseling.

Ability Grouping

Hispanic students may also be discriminated against through placement into homogeneous ability groups. Students may be placed in low ability classes in some or all subjects upon entering high school and remain in those classes until they graduate.

In the early 1970's the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights surveyed 1,100 schools in the Southwest and learned that 63% of the elementary schools and 79% of the secondary schools used some type of ability grouping. They found this practice to be more common in schools where there was a high percentage (75-100) of Hispanic students than in schools with a smaller percentage (0-30) of Hispanic students. Not surprising, Hispanic students are overrepresented in low ability groups and underrepresented in high ability groups. Most disturbing of all is that in schools that are over one-half Hispanic, 75% of the Hispanic students are in the low ability groups ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

Placement of students into ability groups is primarily based on two sources of information. The results of standardized intelligence and achievement tests are generally used and their biases have previously been discussed. Teacher and other staff recommendations are used, which are also subject to cultural bias and misinformation ("Teachers and Students," 1973).

Despite the large number of schools that practice ability grouping, it has not been demonstrated that grouping students according to ability benefits them (e.g., Elder, 1983; Winn and Wilson, 1983). The original theory behind homogeneous grouping was that students in low ability groups would perform better because they would not be compared with the better students and they could get more individual help. The better students would not be hindered by the slow ones and could progress more quickly.

There are several reasons why ability grouping is not very successful. First, students in the low ability groups receive no intellectual stimulation from higher ability classmates. Students have nothing to strive for and no positive role models. Second, teachers' expectations are very closely related to their perceptions of students' ability resulting in expecting less of "poorer" students (e.g., Proctor, 1984; Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968). Thus, students achieve less and continue to stay behind the better students—a vicious cycle of self-fulfilling prophecy. Research (e.g., Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968) has shown that when teachers expect students to do well, they work harder to encourage them, and students generally do well. Many teachers are not adequately trained to individualize the teaching to low ability students. Third, once placed in a lower group, students rarely move out of it. As stated before, students fall behind and remain where they are, with little hope of advancement. This is particularly true in the case of Hispanic students who may have difficulty with the language to begin with ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

RHS still practices homogeneous grouping in science where freshmen take either Basic Physical Science or Physical Science; in math where they take Basic Math, Introduction to Algebra, or Algebra I; and in social studies where juniors take Basic U.S. History, or U.S. History. Placement in these classes is based on teacher recommendations, California Test of Basic Skills scores, and eighth grade math and science scores.

Until this past fall, a student in English either took a modified or regular English class based on the aforementioned factors. Teachers in the English department felt the system was not working and the solution was to group students heterogeneously; that is, regardless of ability. This year all students are in regular English classes. Seventeen students who are two years below grade level in reading and not already in a tutorial or special education class are also in directed study with an English teacher. At the end of the first semester 15 of the 17 students passed their English class, suggesting that the directed study approach is beneficial. Consequently, RHS will use the directed study approach next year.

Teacher-Pupil Interaction

While most students spend almost the entire day under the direction of the classroom teacher, the Hispanic student's experience in the classroom may not be the same as non-Hispanic students. Teachers have biases and prejudices just like anyone else and, unfortunately, they often bring them into their interactions with the students.

In 1968 the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights studied teacher interactions with Anglo and Hispanic students. Their survey was limited to the three Southwestern states with the largest Hispanic population—Texas, California, and New Mexico. Urban, suburban, and rural areas were selected from each of these states. Altogether 430 schools were included in the survey. The major finding of the Commission was that the Hispanic students were not being encouraged to participate as much as Anglo students ("Teachers and Students," 1973).

The Commission found that teachers encouraged or praised Anglo students 36% more often than they praised Hispanic students. They used or built upon the answers of Anglo students 40% more often than the answers of Hispanic students. When all areas of positive teacher interaction were combined, teachers responded positively to Anglo students 40% more than they did Hispanic students. Teachers asked questions of Anglo students 21% more than they asked them of Hispanic students. Based on non-critical teacher responses, Hispanic students received quite a bit less attention from teachers than Anglo students ("Teachers and Students," 1973).

The information on teacher-pupil interaction put out by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights is over ten years old, but the problem remains the same. Buriel (1983) investigated teacher-pupil interactions using students from three elementary schools in one district in southern California. His subjects were 99 fourth and fifth-graders, including 59 Anglo students and 40 Hispanic students. All the students were similar in terms of English proficiency, level of academic achievement, and socio-economic background.

The results of Buriel's study revealed three very important things: Anglo students received a greater proportion of product questions; Anglo students received more teacher affirmation after giving correct responses; and Hispanic students' achievement (correct answers) was positively related to teacher affirmation. According to Buriel this has two important implications for Hispanic students. First, because teachers often do not use praise in the classroom in general, praise from a teacher after giving the correct answer is probably the primary form of reinforcement. Second, among the Hispanic students, the better students received more affirmation than the poorer students. For the Hispanic student, teacher affirmation seems to be contingent upon being a good student, while it is not for the Anglo student (Buriel, 1983). The marked difference in the way teachers treat Anglo and Hispanic students means that Hispanic students are not getting the same educational opportunities that Anglos are, nor are they able to achieve as much.

The Commission report places the majority of the blame for teacher attitudes towards Hispanics on the educational system. This is partially true, but some of the blame belongs to the teachers and the institutions that train them. In 1974 the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights also examined teacher education. The Commission found that Hispanics are poorly represented in positions which influence teacher training programs, as well as among teachers presently in the schools and those training to be teachers ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

The Commission also found that the teacher training programs were not preparing teachers in the Southwest to teach Hispanic students. Very few of the programs surveyed included any material on the background and culture of Hispanic students or the skills needed to teach Hispanic students. The programs did not usually require teacher trainees to take courses in ethnic studies, foreign language, cultural anthropology or other classes that might help teachers better understand Hispanic students. Teachers seldom did their student teaching in schools with a significant number of Hispanic students ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

When the senior author was in her teacher training program, graduating in 1979, there were no requirements regarding teaching minority students. The report by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights was never mentioned in any methods classes. Since Fall, 1982 NCU has required teachers to choose one of two classes dealing with minority students: Introduction to Multiculturalism and Social and Cultural Diversity in Education.

Curriculum

Another important aspect of a child's education is the curriculum, the courses that are offered to students. Classes can help students prepare for a career or help students decide which direction they would like their lives to go.

At the same time that the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights was investigating teacher education they were also looking at the issue of school curriculum. The Commission found that Hispanic persons were underrepresented in positions affecting curriculum at the state and district levels. One reason Hispanic persons are excluded from this process at the district level is because of the lack of Hispanic teachers in the school districts. Also, many districts do not encourage parent input in policy decisions around curriculum. Hispanic parents are sometimes prevented from participating because schools fail to provide for language differences at school board and PTA meetings and in school notices ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

The Commission also discovered that the Spanish language is often excluded from school curricula and few courses that would be of special interest to Hispanic students, such as Chicano Studies, are offered. Textbooks either failed to include any references to the Hispanic culture, history and participation in the development of the Southwest, or they distorted or put down the Hispanic history and culture.

RHS encouraged parent participation, but generally it was the parents of the best students that expressed their opinions. Parents of Hispanic students who did not do as well usually didn't participate in school matters. This may have been due to the language difference or Hispanic parents believed their input is not wanted.

Although RHS offered Spanish and Advanced Spanish, Hispanic students were forbidden to speak Spanish in any class other than Spanish class. The reasoning behind this, we think, was that it was not fair to other students and the teacher who did not understand what the Hispanic students were saying. However, this is a double standard, because some Hispanic students did not understand the teacher and the other students because of language differences.

Counseling

One of the most important aspects of a student's educational experience is counseling. A counselor can help a student adjust to a new school, help with a personal problem or provide career and college information.

Two of the problems that affect counselors and their ability to do their jobs compound the problems Hispanics have in school. The first is the poor pupil-counselor ratio that exists in many districts at the elementary and secondary levels.

In a survey done in 1969 in the Southwest in schools with a population of more than 10% Hispanics, there were 1,124 pupils for every counselor. However, in the elementary schools, the ratio was a shocking 3,343 to one. In the high schools where students are going through the trauma of adolescence and searching for career information, the ratio was 471 to one, which is twice as high as the 250 to one ratio recommended by the American School Counselor Association ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

The availability of Hispanic counselors was even worse. At the elementary level, there were only 184 Hispanic counselors out of a total of 3,388, or 5.4%. At the secondary level, where there are more Hispanic counselors, the ratio of Hispanic pupils to Hispanic counselors was 2,203 to one ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

With so few counselors for so many students, it is difficult for counselors to see students as often as necessary, or even to know who the students are. Most school districts still have a counselor-pupil ratio that far exceeds what is recommended. Some school districts (e.g., Denver Public Schools) for various reasons, have done away with elementary school counselors altogether.

When the senior author interviewed for her counseling position she was very impressed at the 200 to one pupil-counselor ratio. Now, however, one position may be cut to half-time counseling because the superintendent does not think there is a need for two full-time counselors at the high school. As it is, counselors do not have time to visit with each of their counselees as well as to work on scheduling, scholarships, attendance problems, and everything else that needs to get done.

The second major problem that counselors face is the amount of paperwork they have to do. This is partially because of the high pupil-counselor ratio, and partially because administrators give counselors a lot of non-counselor, clerical duties such as scheduling, attendance, and hall duty. In graduate school counselors are told it is not a counselor's responsibility to schedule, but we have yet to meet a high school counselor who does not schedule.

At RHS the scheduling system requires that counselors spend approximately 40 to 60% of their time on scheduling alone. Although counselors never tell a student they are too busy to help with a personal problem, not many students drop in to talk. Those that do tend to be students who are doing better scholastically, as opposed to those students (including many Hispanic students) who actually need assistance.

Counselor training programs do very little to prepare counselors to work with Hispanic students. There are very few Hispanic faculty in positions to affect counselor training programs. In 1971, out of the 59 institutions in the Southwest that provided counselor training programs, not one of the 436 staff members had a Spanish surname. The schools had no data available on the number of Hispanic students enrolled in counseling programs, but the low percentage of Hispanic students enrolled in colleges suggests that they are underrepresented there as well ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974). At present, HSU and NCU have no Spanish surnamed counselor educators.

In 1971, three of the five Southwestern states still required counselor trainees to teach for two years before entering a training program. Colorado still has this requirement. This requirement excludes people who have worked with young people in social agencies and community centers ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974). Because of the small number of Hispanic teachers, it stands to reason that there will be few Hispanic counselors.

Usually counselor training programs have no required coursework dealing with minority students. None of the schools examined in the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights required Spanish, the history of Hispanic persons, or other ethnic study courses. Trainees in the counseling programs have very little opportunity to work with Hispanic students, and even when counselor trainees do get experience working with Hispanic students, they haven't had the necessary training to work with them effectively ("Toward Quality

Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

The senior author received an M.S. degree in School Counseling from HSU, located in a very conservative town. In the counseling program itself there was only one minority student and he was from a Middle Eastern country. Furthermore, we received no experience in counseling minority students and minority students were never mentioned in any of the counseling classes.

To meet National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) requirements all students in the counseling program were required to read five journal articles on working with minority students and write a five-page paper. In the spring of 1982, while at HSU, the NCATE team arrived on campus to evaluate the various programs. The team decided that a five-page paper was not enough, and requested that the counseling program find ways to incorporate instruction and practice in counciling minority students. NCU also does not require a class in counseling minority students. There are two classes that can be chosen as electives: Understanding and Counseling Minorities, and Psychology of Prejudice.

Language Difference

The concept of bilingual education probably causes more controversy and disagreement than any other aspect of the Hispanic student's education. Educators disagree as to whether bilingual education is fulfilling its purpose and they disagree on how the programs should be run. Bilingualism can be defined as, "enclding and decoding in two languages" (Martinez, 1977, p. 124).

A major premise in bilingual education is that a student who can speak, read, and write in two languages is an asset to our society and has an advantage over those of us who speak only one language. Along with this is the notion that the Spanish speaking people in the U.S. are a "valuable source of existing and potential bilinguals" (Litsinger, 1973, p. 141). Insteak of viewing Hispanic students as educational problems, they should be looked at in terms of their potential.

There are three main reasons that support bilingualism in elementary schools. In schools where English is the primary mode of instruction, a child entering school with less competence in English than children who speak only English may fall behind the other students. Also, there needs to be reinforcement of the native language in the home and in the school. And finally, because language is a very important part of a student's personality, for the school to reject the native language of a group of children can cause student's concept of themselves, their parents, and their culture to be adversely affected (Andersson and Boyer, 1978).

School can be quite a culture shock to a Hispanic child who speaks no English. Although teachers may try to make the student feel welcome and comfortable, they do it in English. Everyone speaks English and students may be forbidden to speak Spanish, making the child feel isolated. The way for children to get approval from the Anglo teachers and students in the school is to learn English as quickly as possible and suppress their language and culture. This gives them the impression that their language and culture are inferior to that of the Anglo teachers and students.

In the case of the Hispanic student, schools need to look at Spanish as the basis for learning English. Keeping students from learning their native language, along with forcing them to learn a foreign language (English) before they are taught the basic concepts of science, literature, and math may account for the low academic achievement of many Hispanic students (Litsinger, 1973).

Andersson and Boyer (1978) use the example of two window panes, the green-tinted Spanish one, and the blue-tinted English one. Both of the window panes look out upon the same world. We tell the first grade student, "You have two windows into the world, the Spanish one and the English one. Unfortunately, your English window hasn't been built yet, but we're going to work on it as fast as we can and in a few years, maybe, it'll be as clear and bright as your Spanish window. Meantime, even if you don't see much, keep on trying to look out the space where the blue one will be. And stay away from the green one! It's against our educational policy to look through anything tinted green" (p. 68).

RHS does not have a bilingual teacher, but there is a teacher from the County District Office who comes to the two elementary schools for a few hours a day. The Distict teacher works with the students in groups, so students do not even get the benefit of one-on-one help.

Summary

Education can and should be a powerful and positive force in a student's life. It enables students to gain a wide variety of experiences, to learn about themselves and hopefully aid them in choosing and then pursuing some type of career. Unfortunately, education is a negative experience for many. Sometimes the student is at fault for not making use of the opportunities available. For Hispanic students, however, it is often the schools that keep them from reaching their full potential.

Test scores are often used against Hispanic students, even though the scores do not reflect their true ability because of language and culture differences. Hispanic students are often placed in low ability groups on the basis of these tests. Students may remain in a low group throughout their education despite evidence that these groups put them further and further behind. Research has shown that teachers influence the Hispanic student's attitude toward school by giving more positive reinforcement and encouragement to Anglo students.

Counselors, while trying to help students, have the added burden of high pupil-counselor ratios and numerous administrative duties. Minority counseling is an area generally ignored by counselor training programs. Coursework contains little or no information on minority students and trainees have little opportunity to work with minority clients.

School curriculum development excludes Hispanic persons from the decision-making process and information about Hispanic culture from the curriculum itself. Most schools with fairly large percentages of Hispanic students have no courses that would be of special interest to them, except possibly Spanish language classes.

Some bilingual programs teach English to non-English speaking students as if Spanish was their second language, something to be ashamed of and forgotten as quickly as possible. School systems need to examine their philosophies and attitudes to see what can be done to reverse the discrimination that exists within.

Implications

This paper has several implications for counselors, teachers, training institutions, and school districts in the future. While we do not have any magical solutions that will address every situation, we would like to recommend the careful study and possible adoption of several ideas recently expressed in the *Journal of Non-White Concerns* (e.g., Garcia, 1983; Hilliard III, 1985; Tidwell, 1980; Turner, 1980; Webb-Woodard, 1983).

First, counseling programs need to require some type of coursework dealing with minority students, both in the classroom and in practice counseling situations. Supervision needs to be provided by persons who are indigenous to or sensitive to the Hispanic culture (e.g., Webb-Woodard, 1983).

Second, teacher training programs also need to require coursework and practice in teaching minority students. The actual practice should be supervised by teachers who are successful in this area, not teachers who just happen to have a high percentage of minority students in their classrooms. NCU requires students to do an introduction to student teaching, yet no introduction to teaching minority students.

Third, educators and counselors need to be aware of cultural biases in tests and make sure they are not used in making vocational choices for the students. Educators should investigate tests that are relatively culture-free (e.g., Tidwell, 1980).

Fourth, districts need to re-evaluate the idea of grouping students according to ability. Research has shown that ability grouping can actually put students further behind instead of bringing students up to the level of the better students. If ability grouping is to be used, it should be on a short-term basis following strict guidelines.

Fifth, Hispanic parents and students need more voice in the planning and implementation of school curricula. Hispanic persons need more voice at the state level in educational decision-making.

Sixth, any type of program that attempts to teach English to Spanish dominant Hispanic children must first teach them to read and write in Spanish, and then teach English as their second language, instead of making them learn English before they have mastered Spanish. Educators need to stop forcing students to become "instant Anglos" and encouraging them to relinquish their ties with their cultural heritage and native language (e.g., Garcia, 1983).

Finally, efforts must be made to increase the numbers of Hispanic counselors and teachers. The paucity of Hispanic counselors and teachers severely limits the availability of similar role models for Hispanic students. The literature (e.g., Bandura, 1977) on modeling stresses the importance of similar role models and the findings of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights underscore the need for Hispanic teachers and counselors as effective role models ("Toward Quality Education for Mexican-Americans," 1974).

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Differential Perceptions of Knowledge and Skill in Consultation by School Counselors and Other Educational Specialists

by Daryl Sander, Albert E. Roark, and Stephen E. Hodge

Consultation has become a key role in which counselors, school psychologists and special education teachers function. From a lay perspective, consultation is giving or receiving advice, but from a professional perspective it means a tripartite, triangular relationship between the consultant, consultee, and the "helpee" (Gallessich, 1982). Traditionally, consultation has been identified with the mental health field (Caplan, 1970) and organization development (Blake and Mouton, 1983; Schein, 1969; and Schmuck & Miles, 1971). However, a national survey of school psychologists found that consultation was their preferred role, and was second only to assessment among their current roles (Meacham and Peckham, 1978). Likewise, special education teachers have an important role as consultants, and in this capacity have been seen as specialists who provide a wide variety of services within the classroom (Parker, 1975). For counselors, the importance of consultation as an intervention strategy has long been recognized as well (Dinkmeyer and Dinkmeyer, 1984; Male, 1982; and Umansky and Holloway, 1984). The critical importance of consultation to the profession of counseling is underscored by the fact that two issues of their leading national journal were devoted to aspects of the topic (Kurpius, 1978).

Consultation literature emphasizes that consultation is complicated, difficult, and takes several different forms depending upon the problem and circumstances. Specialists are asking a variety of questions regarding the appropriate time, amount, type of consultation, and appropriate type of problem for consultation in diverse circumstances (Kurpius, 1985). Even such highly regarded authorities as Blake and Mouton (1983) and Gallesich (1982) do not address many of the specific issues and practices relevant to school personnel.

The purpose of this research was to compare the perceptions of school psychologists, special education teachers and counselors on their knowledge and skills in consultation, and to note if any differences in self-ratings were related to differences in amount of training or experience.

Method

Three random samples (n = 100 each) of school psychologists, counselors, and special education teachers were drawn from lists provided by the state's Department of Education. A questionnaire was mailed to all 300 specialists and six weeks after the initial mailing non-respondents were asked, by telephone, to return their questionnaires. Return rates were 75% for school psychologists, and about 60% for counselors and special education teachers.

The questionnaire was constructed by members of a research task force

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representing the three specialists. It was based upon knowledge acquired through years of practice in consultation by members of the task force as well as on the content of the professional literature. Respondents were asked to rate separately, on a five-point scale, both their knowledge of and perceived skills in the following seven areas: (1) communication, (2) group facilitation, (3) diagnosis, (4) conflict management, (5) evaluation, (6) planning for change, and (7) implementation of plans. Because another phase of this research asked the respondents to supply their own meaning for the term, "consultation," a standard definition was not provided by the researchers. However, it was defined inferentially by these seven categories of knowledge and skills in consultation on which respondents rated themselves.

Results

A major finding is that consultation is undeniably seen as a part of the professional role of the specialists in this study; 100% of the counselors, 96% of the school psychologists, and 92% of the special education teachers answered affirmatively that consulting was part of their role. The proportion of time devoted to consultation was 34%, 20% and 18% for counselors, psychologists, and teachers, respectively.

Counselor self-ratings of *knowledge* about consultation were higher than the self-rating of the other two groups in five of seven areas (Table 1). School

Table 1

Self-Ratings of Knowledge and Consultation

	Combined group N = 191	School psy. N = 72	Couns. N = 59	Special educ. N = 60	Sig.Dif. among groups*	
Area of Knowledge		**Group 1**	**Group 2**	**Group 3**	**p**	**.05**
Communication						
M	3.90	3.85	4.29	3.58		
SD	1.00	0.96	0.64	1.20	2	1,3
Group Facilitation						
M	3.44	3.42	3.95	2.97		
SD	1.13	1.12	0.84	1.18	2	1,3
Diag. & Probl. Solv.						
M	3.94	4.11	4.03	3.63		
SD	0.95	0.74	0.69	1.29	1	3
Conflict Mgmt.						
M	3.41	3.46	3.75	3.02		
SD	1.03	1.01	0.73	1.19	1,2	3
Evaluation						
M	3.63	3.92	3.59	3.33		
SD	1.08	0.90	0.83	1.37	1	3
Plan for Change						
M	3.50	3.53	3.90	3.08		
SD	1.07	1.03	0.78	1.21	1,2	3
Implement Plans						
M	3.66	3.60	4.00	3.42		
SD	1.09	1.08	0.81	1.27	2	3

(High = 5; Low = 1)

*Significance of differences among the 3 groups was determined by application of Scheffe tests.

psychologists' ratings on knowledge of "diagnosis and problem-solving" and "evaluation" were significantly higher than those of either counselors or teachers. Special education teachers rated themselves lower than the others in all areas of knowledge of consultation.

In general, the self-ratings of counselors on *skills* in consultation were higher than those of the other two groups (Table 2). In all areas, the overall mean rating on skills is lower than the overall mean ratings on corresponding areas of knowledge. Significance of differences in all cases was tested by ANOVA following procedures described by Hopkins and Glass (1978).

On self-ratings of seven areas of skills in consultation, counselors rated themselves significantly higher (p .05) than special education teachers on "conflict management" and "planning for change." Both school psychologists and counselors rated themselves significantly higher (p .05) than did teachers in only one area, "group facilitation skills." There were no significant differences between groups on the four remaining areas of consultation skills.

Table 2

Self-Ratings of Skills in Consultation

	Combined group N = 191	School psy. N = 72	Couns. N = 59	Special educ. N = 60	Sig. Dif. among groups*
Area of Skill		**Group 1**	**Group 2**	**Group 3**	**p .05**
Communication					
M	3.80	3.88	3.97	3.53	N.S.
SD	1.10	0.90	1.20	1.19	
Group Facilitation					
M	3.36	3.42	3.81	2.83	
SD	1.26	1.26	1.09	1.22	1,2 3
Diag. & Probl. Solv.					
M	3.83	3.96	3.90	3.60	N.S.
SD	1.11	0.88	1.14	1.29	
Conflict Mgmt.					
M	3.35	3.36	3.71	2.98	
SD	1.19	1.12	1.07	1.30	2 3
Evaluation					
M	3.47	3.72	3.37	3.25	N.S.
SD	1.21	1.02	1.10	1.46	
Plan for Change					
M	3.41	3.44	3.68	3.10	
SD	1.20	1.16	1.06	1.33	2 3
Implement Plans					
M	3.52	3.47	3.80	3.32	N.S.
SD	1.20	1.10	1.17	1.30	

(High = 5; Low = 1)

*Significance of differences among the 3 groups was determined by application of Scheffe tests.

Discussion

Differences in self-ratings of knowledge and skills might be expected to relate to educational and experiential differences between the groups. However, the previously noted self-rating order (high to low) of counselor, psychologists, teacher is not followed in this case. There is a significant difference between the three specialists in the proportions who hold advanced degrees, especially doctorates (Roark, Hodge, and Sander, 1984). About a fourth of the school psychologists have the doctorate, while only 6% of counselors and 3.5% of special education teachers hold doctorates. Despite this fact, psychologists rated themselves below counselors, as a rule, in both knowledge and skill in consultation.

Since level of formal education did not relate to perceived-competency ratings, the *number of courses taken on consultation* was analyzed. Counselors in this study did claim to have more coursework specifically on consultation while psychologists claimed the least. The finding for counselors is consistent with those reported by Splete and Bernstein (1981) who indicated that a high proportion of counselor education programs offered consultation as a course or as part of a course. Though counselors in this study claimed more coursework, differences between the three groups of specialists were not statistically significant (Roark et al., 1984).

Additional analyses of "courses taken which included a *unit* on consultation" and "*workshops* taken on consultation" revealed a similar numerical advantage for counselors, but, again without being statistically significant.

Of interest is the percentage of subjects in each field who reported having taken *nine or more courses* on consultation (counselors 5.1%, psychologists 2.8%, and teachers 3.3%). In future investigations it may be useful to ask subjects to list the titles of courses so as to permit an analysis of which courses subjects consider to be consultation courses.

Since level of education and amount of consultation-related coursework did not seem to relate to self-ratings, it was hypothesized that years of experience in one's particular speciality might account, in part, for the difference in ratings. Analysis of the groups by years of experience did indicate significant differences (Roark et al., 1984). The counselors were clearly the most experienced group and it is possible that this advantage in experience accounts for counselors' more favorable self-ratings appear to be related, it would be helpful to detect the specific components within experience which may most directly influence self-ratings and competencies.

In summary, a comparison was made of the self-ratings of counselors, school psychologists, and special education teachers regarding perceived knowledge and skills in consultation. There were significant differences between at least two of the groups on all seven of the knowledge areas, with counselors rating themselves higher in 5 of 7 areas of knowledge about consultation. There were three areas of difference in the seven skill areas; in these areas there was no significant difference between counselors and psychologists, but both groups rated themselves as higher in skill than did the special educators. Differences in self-rated levels of knowledge and skills appear to be unrelated to level of education, and number of courses taken in consultation, but they are related to the number of years of experience in one's specialty.

Given the commitments of these specialists to the consultation role and the apparent differences between the specialists, further investigation of the relationship between training and performance in the consultative role is recommended. In the meantime, educators should be aware that there are discernible differences among educational specialists with regard to consultation. Not only are there important differences in consultation skills and knowledge, but there may well be differences in their comprehension of the process of consultation itself.

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My Mother

by Edith C. Kaleck

My mother was a misunderstood woman. I thought her biggest problem was alcohol. It was not; it was Alzheimer's Disease. This is an insidious disease that is more terrible than anything you can imagine. This is written as a memorial to my mother and to all of the people who have Alzheimer's Disease, those with loved ones who have Alzheimer's Disease, and more than that, to all of you who will have Alzheimer's Disease.

Imagine, if you will, being a stranger in your own home, afraid of your loved ones, unable to get your thoughts together, the ability to read and write slowly slipping away, the ability to drive a car, and soon the ability to dress yourself and feed yourself, slowly going. This is how Alzheimer's Disease sneaks up on you. It is like "a thief in the night." Except there is no going back, everything you have lost is gone forever, and you get worse! I hope you can see how ineffectual I felt as a counselor.

First let me tell you about my mother. Mother was fiercely loyal; people called her vindictive. She was funny and full of life; people called her silly. She was bright and very intelligent; people thought she was a snob. Mother had a sense of style; people said she was odd. She was all of these things and more, but more than that she was my mother.

She was easily hurt and she would strike back with anger. She did not know any other way. I did not understand; I wanted to get away, so I married and got far away. I still wasn't happy.

My mother drank a lot. It was easy to blame everything I did not understand on alcohol. It wasn't until many years later that I found alcohol was also a disease. Mother never had a chance.

My mother was never understood by those who did not take time to know her. I was one of those people. I never understood until it was too late, until she was ravaged by the disease and no longer knew who I was.

Mother was a lot of things, but most of all she was a mother. She operated on what information she had. Her own mother died when she was two. Mother did the best she could under this system.

Mother instilled in me a sense of self. My mother told me I was attractive when someone made me doubt. My mother made being poor fun, so I did not realize we were poor until much later. My mother instilled in me a love of books and a love of learning, which I still have today. Mother taught me so much, how to love and how to accept love.

When I discovered mother had Alzheimer's Disease, I denied it for quite a while. When I finally realized that it was here and was not going away, I came to some conclusions. How could I as a counselor be of help to my father who was going to have to bear the brunt of this terrible disease?

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I talked to psychologists, counselors, and anyone else who may have an answer. They all told me two very important things: (1) Do your grieving now, and (2) Say your goodbyes to her. I did that. It took place over a year's time, but I could be strong for my father.

This was not easy, but it was necessary. I urged my father to get back into church and renew his faith, because he would need both of these in the future. I found that I could do little else, just be there when he needed me. I found it true that you should never counsel with your own family. You are too close. Your perceptions are clouded. Your intuitiveness, which allows you to be creative and inventive, has broken down. You have such a feeling of hopelessness and frustration which cannot be absolved.

However, this taught me to be more empathetic and understanding about death. Everyone has to handle grief in their own way, and we must allow them this time of grief. Death is so final. It is not a pleasant subject, but one we will all have to deal with sooner or later.

I will remember my mother for many things. But one thing really stands out in my mind. When I came into her room she was not there. I panicked and went rushing after her. As I went down the corridor, I saw her standing in another patient's room. I stopped and called to her. She turned, smiled, and called my name.

Some Things Counselors Might Like to Read About Counseling the Gifted and Talented

by Judith A. Praul and Maureen Neihart

One of the authors was recently preparing a unit for a class on the school counselor's role in working with gifted and talented students. In reviewing the literature it became apparent that little specific information has been written about the counselor's responsibility to this special population. Most of the early focus has been on the intellectual development of gifted persons. Only recently have researchers and educators begun discussing the emotional and social needs of these students (Betts, 1985; Schmitz and Galbraith, 1986; Webb, Meckstroth, and Tolan, 1984; Whitmore, 1980). It is interesting to note that the majority of references to and articles dealing with counseling needs of the gifted and talented are not being published in counseling journals. With the exception of the special issue of the *Journal of Counseling and Development*, May 1986, and an occasional article in other counseling journals, most information is not easily accessible to counselors.

In addition to not being a targeted group for published information about the gifted and talented, counselors are not systematically receiving training in this area during their preparation programs. A quick perusal of required coursework in counseling programs in this state as well as in others further suggests that counselor educators are not adequately preparing counselors to work with the gifted and talented students. Not one Counselor Educator program evaluated required a course addressing counseling the gifted and talented. When such courses are available, they are usually in graduate teacher education programs. It seems safe to assume that most school counselors have had little or no specific training for working with the gifted and talented student and that existing services provided by counselors for these students are probably less than ideal.

We believe that any viable program for the gifted and talented in the schools must include the counselor in an integral role. "The reason is simple: gifted youngsters have specific counseling needs that are crucial to their development." (Rothney, cited in Colangelo and Zaffrann, 1979, p.). It is the intent of this article to provide selected resources that the authors believe to be beneficial in helping counselors with the gifted. These resources provide information about psychological and educational implications of giftedness. They also include practical suggestions about the role of the counselor in facilitating the development of gifted students. More than seventy articles, books, and other resources were examined to determine their relevance for the counselor. These resources include both theoretical and practical information. A brief synopsis of each suggested reading is provided. Further, these resources are divided into specific interest areas including: a) emotional, social,

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and relationship issues, b) career and vocational guidance, and c) family dynamics and parent education.

Emotional, Social, and Relationship Issues

"While the research literature tends to support a view of equal or superior adjustment, an increasing concern for the mental health of gifted students is emerging among professionals and in the media." (Altman, 1983, p. 65). The following resources have been identified by the authors as particularly appropriate for helping counselors focus on the social and emotional issues of the gifted.

Braga, J.L. (1969). Analysis and evaluation of early admission to school for mentally advanced children. *The Journal of Educational Research, 63,* (3), 103-105. The article describes a research study that compared the effects of early admission on grade school children. Overall, the study concluded that there were no significant differences between the early-admit children and their non-early-admit peers. This resource is valuable to counselors who may be involved in decision-making about acceleration and early admission policies.

Clark, B. (1983). *Growing up gifted.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill. This is the comprehensive text on the development and education of the gifted. The book is divided into three sections. Section I discusses general characteristics, moral development, attitudes, self-concept and other aspects of social-emotional development. Section II addresses the issue of education for the gifted. Specifically, it includes an overview of gifted programs, and discusses identification, teaching strategies and special concerns (underachievement, cultural differences, and handicaps). The last section of the text lists resources for testing and assessment of the gifted.

Colangelo, N. and Zaffrann, R. (1979). *New voices in counseling the gifted.* Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt. This collection of articles addresses a wide variety of guidance issues for the gifted, including career development, women's issues, and educational programming among others. This is highly recommended because it is the only existing resource of its kind.

Culross, R.R. (1982). Developing the whole child: A developmental approach to guidance with the gifted. *Roeper Review, 5,* 24-26. Culross describes ten counseling needs of gifted children. The author also offers ten recommendations for counselors to help meet these needs.

Davis, G.A. and Rimm, S.B. (1985). *Education of the gifted and talented.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. Several chapters in this new text provide current research information about topics of interest to counselors. These include acceleration, grouping and counseling, affective learning, underachievement, and parenting.

Delisle, J. (1984). Preventive counseling for the gifted adolescent: From words to action. *Roeper Review, 6,* 21-25. The author presents a rationale for a preventive counseling program for the gifted and suggests activities that may be used in such a program.

Delisle, J. (1982). Striking out: Suicide and the gifted adolescent. *G/C/T, 24,* 16-19. The author explains unique characteristics of gifted teens that may be precipitating factors in suicide. Also mentioned are intervention strategies directed at these specific factors.

Freeman, J. (1983). Emotional problems of the gifted child. *Journal of child*

psychology and psychiatry, 24, (3), 481-485. The author explores four areas of vulnerability in gifted children's growth and development which can cause emotional and educational problems. These are: a) heightened sensitivity, b) unreal expectations, c) gender, and d) inappropriate educational facilities. The authors also address teacher and parental behaviors which contribute to problems in each of these areas.

Goertzel, V. and Goertzel, M. (1962). *Cradles of eminence.* Boston: Little, Brown and Co. This book is entertaining and enlightening reading about the parenting, education and childhood of over 400 eminent men and women of this century. Counselors will find this an invaluable resource for bibliotherapy with gifted youth.

Hall, E.G. (1978). Gaining a future through self-understanding. *Roeper Review, 1,* 13-14. This article presents a brief yet thorough discussion of the psychological needs of gifted adolescents. Several solutions for meeting these needs are offered. This information is useful to counselors who are involved in consultation with classroom teachers and parents.

Kerr, B.A. (1985). *Smart girls, gifted women.* Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Psychology Publishing. This book is excellent reading about the processes that influence the development of all gifted females in American society. Dr. Kerr discusses barriers to achievement that bright women encounter and makes practical recommendations on how young girls and women can be helped to surmount these obstacles. The author gives many practical intervention strategies for the education and parenting of the gifted female.

Manaster, G.J. and Powell, P.M. (1983). A framework for understanding gifted adolescents psychological maladjustment. *Roeper Review, 6,* 70-73. The authors explain a framework for conceptually organizing problems that gifted adolescents may have. This framework includes three conditions which define potential adjustment problems for the gifted: a) "out of stage" they are different and don't fit in), b) "out of phase" they appear different to themselves and to others and cannot fit in), and c) "out of sync" (they feel they do not fit and they accept this conclusion). The authors also identify problems related to each condition.

Morton, J.H. and Wokman, E.A. (1978). Insights: Assisting intellectually gifted students with emotional difficulties. *Roeper Review, 1,* 16-18. This article discusses four observations about helping the gifted with emotional difficulties. The authors stress the importance of viewing the gifted child as part of a system that includes home and school. They suggest that interventions must be directed toward the "system" of the gifted child.

Powell, P.M. and Haden, T. (1984). The intellectual and psychological nature of extreme giftedness. *Roeper Review, 4,* 131-133. A description of the information-processing style of the highly gifted is provided along with a discussion of their potential problems with self-esteem. The summary highlights implications for parenting and counseling.

Roedell, W.C. (1984). Vulnerabilities of highly gifted children. *Roeper Review, 6,* 127-130. The author discusses the vulnerability of highly gifted children in the areas of uneven development, perfectionism, adult expectations, intense sensitivity, self-definition, alienation, inappropriate environments and role conflicts. The article differentiates between the highly gifted and the moderately gifted, suggesting the highly gifted may experience more difficulties in the above areas.

Roeper, A. (1982). How the gifted cope with their emotions. *Roeper Review, 5,* 21-24. Six gifted personality types are explored: a) the perfectionist, b) the child/adult, c) the winner of the competition, d) the exception, e) the self-critic and f) the well-integrated child. The author explains the emotional needs and possible problems of each type.

Schmitz, C.C. and Galbraith, J. (1985). *Managing the social and emotional needs of the gifted.* Minneapolis, Minnesota: Free Spirit Publishing. This book contains concrete strategies for understanding, supporting, and enhancing the social and emotional growth of gifted youth. The authors provide excellent activities to be used in a classroom or large group setting with students of all ages.

Whitmore, J. (1980). *Giftedness, conflict and underachievement.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon. Whitmore addresses the specific problem of gifted underachievers. She includes an overview of the research and practices in the field and thoroughly discusses the identification of gifted underachievers. The author presents a variety of intervention strategies and suggests ways to involve parents in the intervention process.

Zaffrann, R.T. (1978). Gifted and talented students: Implications for school counselors. *Roeper Review, 1,* 9-13. Zaffrann outlines three primary guidance functions for counselors: counseling, consulting, and research and evaluation. He defines and briefly discusses each guidance function and includes examples of various forms (e.g. a parent consent form) that a counselor might use in working with the gifted and talented.

Career and Vocational Guidance

Career and vocational guidance for the gifted received considerable attention in the seventies and is beginning again to emerge in the literature as a significant counseling focus. The resources listed below provide valuable suggestions for career counseling with gifted youth.

Carroll, K.L. (1982). Career decision-making and artistically gifted and talented students. *Roeper Review, 4,* 14-15. The author discusses a number of factors related to career decision-making for the artistically gifted. These factors include singular vs. multiple art talent, preferred workstyle, and additional strengths such as leadership or creativity.

Hoyt, K.B. (1978). Career education for gifted and talented persons. *Roeper Review, 1,* 9-11. The author identifies six practical problems which exist in career planning for the gifted. These include: a) a less personal need to discover relationships between education and work, b) a greater stress on interests and values than on aptitude, c) an emphasis on adaptability, d) the right to freedom of occupational choice, e) the lack of role models, and f) the pressures for those with special talent to make decisions long before reaching vocational maturity. For each of these problems the author discusses implications for counseling.

Torrance, E.P. (1984). *Mentor relationships.* Buffalo, New York: Bearly Limited. This short, excellent book focuses on the role of mentoring relationships in the personal and professional development of gifted individuals. Documentation from Torrance's twenty-two year study of adult creative achievement is included to describe how and why mentoring relationships produce positive benefits for the gifted. This book is highly recommended for counselors who are helping gifted students establish mentorships.

Family Dynamics and Parent Education

Often parents of gifted children seek the advice of a counselor because they need assistance understanding their child's giftedness. Parents of such children often feel isolated and confused and need support. They realize that their child is different and want assurance concerning what is "normal." The following resources will assist the counselor in consultation with these parents.

Blum, H., LoGuidice, J. and Catz, P. (1982). *A guidebook for working with parents of highly gifted children.* Doylestown, Pennsylvania: Bucks County Schools. This guidebook provides a well-developed outline for a five-step training program to help parents understand their gifted child. This program is modeled after the Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) program developed by Dinkmeyer and McKay. Specific session topics include: a) identifying concerns and expectations, b) the family unit, c) developing self-management skills, d) building self-esteem, and e) practical applications of parenting approaches. Although the information provided in each session is rather brief, counselors that are trained to work in groups and/or parent education could use the basic information to develop a worthwhile program for parents.

Moore, N.D. (1982). The joys and challenges in raising a gifted child. *G/C/T, 25*, 8-11. The author, a mother of a gifted daughter, discusses the difficulties in raising a gifted child. She offers suggestions on how both parents and child can survive public education. She argues that informed parents are the gifted child's chief advocate and primary educator.

Sebring, A.D. (1983). Parental factors in the social and emotional ajustment of the gifted. *Roeper Review, 6*, 97-99. The author discusses a number of parent-child conflicts that arise when parents base their expectations of behavior on so-called average norms or on their own childhood. The parent-child relationship is also complicated by the fact that many parents of gifted children are of average intelligence. A number of pitfalls for parents are discussed and several parenting strategies are suggested.

Webb, J., Meckstroth, E. and Tolan, S.S. (1982) *Guiding the gifted child.* Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Psychology Publishing Co. This is a very readable and insightful book for parents as well as counselors. It contains an overview of giftedness and focuses on the myths and stereotypes of giftedness. A major portion of the book is devoted to characteristics of the gifted and practical suggestions for working with common problems. Much of the information in this book came from the authors' experience in facilitating groups for parents of gifted children so the material is both insightful and practical.

School counselors must be involved with the gifted program in their schools, yet few counselors have received formal training in counseling the gifted. The articles and books included in this bibliography were selected by the authors as being particularly applicable for counselors who wish to learn more about the characteristics and concerns of the gifted and talented student. These selected resources also provide objectives and goals for counselor involvement in gifted and talented programs. Although this list includes only a selection of the total resources available, it serves as a primary source for counselors who wish to become more effective in their work with the gifted.

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BOOK REVIEW

When Society Becomes An Addict

by Anne Wilson Schaef
Harper & Row, 1987
Reviewed by Susan Prindle (Graduate Student in College Student Personnel Administration at Colorado State University)

According to Anne Wilson Schaef *When Society Becomes An Addict* is a book of naming. In this societal analysis Ms. Schaef names the American culture as an addictive system. Through illustrating the characteristics of addiction and analyzing the processes that keep the current system function, she provides the reader with a new model for understanding his/her surrounding world.

Part I briefly highlights some of the ideas presented in Ms. Shaef's previous book *Women's Reality*. She describes three systems: The White Male System; the Female Companion System, The Reactive Female System; and her ideal, The Emerging Female System. From here Ms. Shaef outlines her "personal odyssey," describing in steps her growing awareness that ours is an addictive system. She then defines several terms that are used throughout the book (i.e. addiction, system) using relationship addiction as the model for her definitions.

Part II describes the characteristics of an addict. The connections Ms. Schaef presents between behaviors like negativism, confusion and perfectionism demonstrate the incredible complexity of the addictive system. Even in writing, where the author can logically organize material, these behaviors melt together demonstrating Ms. Schaef's point that confusion is the norm in our present system. The author's honesty, personal insight, and vast experience dealing with recovering clients also provides a graphic illustration of the effects addiction has on interpersonal relationships. She expands this picture of addiction to include how addictive characteristics operate in similar ways on a system-wide level. She accomplishes this expansion by introducing the concept of the addictive system as a hologram, the essential feature of the hologram being that "each piece of the hologram contains the entire structure of the entire hologram." Those that agree with Ms. Shaef's parallels between the individual addict and the system are left concerned with the state of society, but feeling that this concern is manageable because inherent in her description of addition are suggestions for behaviors that individuals can choose in order to function in positive, life-affirming ways.

Part III looks at the processes of the addictive system, namely the "hows" that perpetuate addictions. Ms. Schael introduces her "Lincoln Log Theory" as a means of illustrating one process, dualistic thinking. This part of the text is interesting because it creates common language for concepts that are more broad than the definitions presented in the previous section. This point is illustrated by the fact that Ms. Schaef uses examples that transcend the personal and have a more global significance (i.e. the My Lae Massacre, Nuclear holocaust). The analysis in this section provides a conceptual challenge since processes are not traditionally handled in this manner (if at all). Even if the reader does not agree with Ms. Schaef's theories, this section will challenge the reader to find answers to why society exhibits the processes described.

In Part IV the pattern changes from description to suggestions for working towards systematic recovery. Ms. Schaef introduces the reader to the twelve step system of Alcoholics Anonymous and reiterates what she considers as some of her most important ideas and thoughts. She ends the work on an upbeat note, encouraging the reader to use his/her clearer understanding of the system to "take his/her place in the universe" and, thus, have an impact on healing the whole system.

When Society Becomes Addicted is an important work for several reasons regardless of whether the reader agrees with Ms. Shaef's thesis that our society is functioning in addictive ways. First, her description of addictive behavior, which is based on her professional experience, is presented in clear and frank terms. Her treatment of the subject would be helpful for both the professional seeking new ways to explain addictive behavior and the layperson attempting to understand addictions. Second, this work is a synthesis of several theories (chemical dependencies, feminist, and mental health). This helps the reader move out of his/her traditional area of study and examine these issues more globally. Third, Ms. Schaef dares to name the problems she sees in our society today. She then goes one step further and gives an explanation of the reasons behind society's malaise. Even if the reader disagrees with her analysis, this work can serve as a reference point in the examination of the institutions that often escape criticism because of history and tradition.

In *When Society Becomes An Addict* Anne Wilson Schaef does not attempt to provide simple answers to complex problems. Instead, she presents reasons for shifting to a new system that allows the individual to have an impact on the direction of society. I was left struggling to decide if my concern with considering individuals in our society victims of a disease is simply denial or a legitimate concern about the basis for the problems that are apparent in our culture. Regardless of the reasons behind our growing problems, I enjoyed this book because it challenged the individual to take responsibility for his/her own actions. I would recommend Ms. Schaef's book for the mental stimulation it provides.

BOOK REVIEW

LIFE WORK: Meaningful Employment in an Age of Limits

by William A. Charland, Jr.
Continuium; New York, 1986
Reviewed by Rich Feller

Sharing a view of employment which reaches deeper and further than the typical limitation on seeking work, *LIFE WORK* is a guide to whole-life planning geared especially toward the baby-boom generation. This unique book provides a view of work not as an isolated part of life but in relation to the totality of one's life, an important point of view for the 80s when each year one-third of America's workers leave their job or career. Author and career expert Charland elaborates on techniques on how individuals can best match their talents and interests to the most suitable employer. With chapters such as "The Mirage of Perfect Work," "Productive Work," and excerpts from personal stories, he illustrates the successes and failures to be found in career moves and job changes. By detailing the dynamics of finding *meaningful employment* as opposed to "just work" and describing self-assessment exercises to help the reader direct and clarify personal needs and talents, Charland seeks to help readers reach "the growing edge where the energies are challenged and where they come alive."

With a mix of case anecdotes, reviews of current futurism literature and a mild critique of pop culture, Charland offers an anthology that comtemporary career counselors should find refreshing. Far from a job search book Charland's trust in employment and faith in human nature fills a void within bookshelves that too often preach success as "moving up" so that one can supposedly "have it all."

GUIDELINES FOR AUTHORS

The Colorado Association for Counseling and Development invites articles for publication in its journal *Awareness*. The deadline for submission of articles is *December 1* of each year. Articles should be sent to:

Rich Feller
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It is important that the journal represent all divisions of CACD and members are encouraged to submit articles about their work, research, and thought-provoking challenges to the profession.

In addition, photos are needed for the journal cover for each issue. Please send any photos which you believe would be appropriate. Although no honorarium can be paid, proper credit will be given to each photographer whose work is published.

Typing and Other Requirements

1. Send the original manuscript and two clear copies. The original should be typed on 8½ × 11 nontranslucent white bond. Do not use onionskin or erasable bond.
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   - title of the article
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3. Style and format should follow the 1983 edition of the *American Psychological Association Publication Manual.*
4. Include an abstract, not to exceed 100 words.
5. Use non-sexist language throughout.
6. Never submit a manuscript which is under consideration by another publication.

Upon publication, each author will receive two personal copies of the journal.

Note: Authors bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures.

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The Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development

Awareness

Spring 1988
Volume 16

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Photo courtesy of Eric Simmons

From the Editor's Desk

In that the *Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development* is published each Spring, much transpires between issues. As Editor, interested in serving members, extending ownership, and expanding authorship, there are a number of changes worth noting within this issue.

A formal editorial board has been expanded to include the significant effort of Brent Jacobsen and Nathalie Kees. Brent's student affairs background and Nat's counselor education experiences complement Patti Cappellucci and Jill Kreutzer. Patti, a junior high counselor, and Jill, a human development and family specialist, round out a team of reviewers providing feedback to authors.

Outreach and encouraging new authors was a goal for this year. I'm pleased to report that letters of invitation were sent to the President and President-Elect of each division encouraging them to identify authors. As a result, we hope a greater number of authors, topics and divisions will use the *Journal* as a forum for sharing ideas.

You'll also find a greater number of articles and book reviews, as well as an expanded "Special Features" section. Add to this a new printer and I hope you find pleasure in reviewing this issue.

Enjoy, and have a peaceful spring.

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In A Different Voice: Amplified

by Maralee A. Cropsey

The male voice has dominated our culture since the beginning of time. Throughout the ages, it has forged our individual and collective world views through religion, philosophy, literature, political, and scientific instruction. The psycho-social sciences continue the tradition by using the male experience as the departure point for interpreting and evaluating human growth and development. The pervasiveness of the male perspective in psychological theory to the exclusion of the female perspective perpetuates an incomplete understanding of human growth and development and, ipso facto, limits the helping profession's ability to facilitate appropriate and positive change.

A Different Voice

The significance of this phenomenon is underscored in Carol Gilligan's (1982) studies of the moral development of women. *In A Different Voice* identifies the inherent weaknesses of male perspective as it is applied to an understanding of female moral development and expands psychological theory by articulating the differences between male and female perspectives.

Gilligan's work begins with an analysis of Kohlberg's widely respected theory of moral development. According to Kohlberg (in Jones, Garrison, and Morgan, 1985), human beings progress through six sequential stages of moral development. Stages 1 and 2 comprise the pre-conventional level of morality. At Stage 1 conformity to moral norms is based on fear of punishment; at Stage 2 conformity is based on expectation of reward. Stages 3 and 4 comprise the conventional level. At Stage 3 moral conformity is motivated from a desire for social approval; Stage 4 is characterized by adherence to fixed rules to avoid censure by authorities. Eventually, advance to the post-conventional level which begins with Stage 5, where morality is based on respect for democratic laws and right, and culminates with an internal "universal principle" of self-chosen ethics based on individual conscience, Stage 6. Kohlberg emphasizes that many do not ever reach Stage 6, and he believes women as a rule do not function above the conventional level.

Naturally, individual experiences foster different perspectives, which in turn influence our moral development and behavior. Kohlberg, himself, explains that moral progression depends upon an individual's unique education and experiences. Despite his acknowledgement of different perspectives, however, his theory is sex-bound by his interpretations, which are inherently

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limited by his own male experience, the legacy of the male voice in psychological literature, and the conventional values of a patriarchal society.

Gilligan's work fills the void in Kohlberg's theory by amplifying the voice of women, which when heard above the din of the male voice, speaks of a different path to morality. Her studies (1982) reveal the following pattern or moral development for women:

Stage 1: Selfishness. Behavior is motivated by an overriding need for survival, and morality is based on introjected social sanctions. (This parallels Kohlberg's pre-conventional level.)

Progression to the next stage is marked by feelings of guilt.

Stage 2: Goodness. Behavior is motivated by an overriding sense of responsibility for others, and morality is derived from the consensus of social norms and expectations. (This parallels Kohlberg's conventional level.)

Progression to the next stage is preceded by a period of growing awareness and evaluation of the harm wrought to self as a result of repeated self-sacrifice.

Stage 3: Truth. Behavior is based on a sense of responsibility for self and others. Moral decisions take into account not only social sanctions and the law but the individual circumstances surrounding an issue and the significance of those circumstances as they concern the people involved. (This parallels Kohlberg's post-conventional level). Gilligan's work repeatedly demonstrate how Kohlberg's interpretations overlook a fundamental difference between the male and the female perspective: experience of relationships. The notion of attachment runs throughout a woman's experience, while the notion of separateness dominates the male experience. Women tend to view themselves in relation to others; men view themselves as autonomous. Women define their ideal selves in terms of caring; men speak of their ideal in terms of personal achievement and perfection. The different way they experience relationships fosters different approaches to resolving moral dilemmas: women typically resolve issues by emphasizing communication, which they perceive as strengthening the human connection. Men tend to rely on conventions of logic and democratically accepted laws, which they perceive as protecting individual rights.

Without an integration of the two perspectives, Gilligan warns, men risk the danger of allegiance to inappropriate abstract rules; as a result men may lack insight into and empathy about the unique, variable situations of others. Likewise, women are subjected to sanctions that may be oppressive or harmful in certain circumstances. These sanctions are steeped in conventional mores which through the ages have distorted the feminine archetype (e.g., loving, nurturing, sympathetic, compassionate, gentle, etc.) by making it synonomous with self-sacrifice. As Gilligan observes, society withholds equal rights to women out of fear that women will lose the caregiving aspects of their femininity. The self-sacrificing ideal, however, fosters morally inferior levels of morality — from both Kohlberg's and Gilligan's theoretical perspectives. Because of the pervasiveness of conventional, self-sacrificing mores, Gilligan suggests that the course of moral development for women forces a contradiction that distorts the truth of human experience: namely, that implicity in the ethic of responsibility, which implies a relationship, is the imperative to include oneself!

Development of moral judgment for women is more complex than that for men because it is tied to the highly subjective quality of relationships versus personal autonomy. Because the male voice dominates the field, interpretations of the female experience have been distorted by the limits of the male perspective and an erroneous conclusion that women are morally inferior has been perpetuated.

Gilligan does not argue the superiority of one perspective over the other; rather, she stresses the incompleteness of one without the other. The male perspective fosters an ethics of justice, and the female perspective an ethics of care. Each compliments the other, and together they enhance the human experience.

Gilligan's assertion is echoed in Daniel Levinson's (1978) theory of male development. Levinson explains that one of the primary tasks for men during mid-life transition is to integrate the formerly denied aspects of their feminine nature (e.g., sensitivity, affection, nurturing — personal relationships) with the male strengths (e.g., assertiveness, leadership, achievement — industry). This integration enhances a sense of life quality essential to a sense of integrity and satisfaction in later years. Hence, Levinson, too, underscores the need to integrate the polarity in society between masculine and feminine perspectives for optimal human development.

A clue to our culture's deafness to the female voice is found in Jung's concept of the archetype (Levinson, 1978). Men tend to repress their feminine archetype for fear they will lose the autonomous power of their masculinity. Women resist developing their masculine archetype for fear its power will separate them from others.

Gilligan (1982) and Levinson (1978) expose these fears as ultimtely debilitating to self, to family, and to society. By integrating the best of both the male and female perspectives, we enrich our individual and collective lives, and social institutions are enhanced in their effectiveness to understand, develop, motivate, and lead its people into a fullness of being.

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Irrational Beliefs in the Workplace: Counseling Against the Myths

by Nathalie Kees & Janet Trever

Ellis defines irrational beliefs as incorrect internalized sentences or self-talk that create emotional disturbances and cause difficulties in living one's life (Ellis & Harper, 1975). He bases his definition on the belief that emotions are not caused by situations or events but rather by the thoughts that we create concerning these events. If our feelings are prolonged and debilitating, Ellis suggests that we challenge the truth and rationality of our thoughts or self-talk and attempt to replace the irrational or untrue beliefs with rational or correct thinking. This in turn will relieve the emotional stress or disturbance we experience and aid us in living more rational and effective lives (Ellis & Harper, 1975).

Rational Emotive Therapy has been applied to several areas of counseling including marriage and family therapy (Ellis, 1982, Ch. 11), feminist therapy (Wolfe, 1974), sex therapy (Ellis, 1975), working with underachievers (Sharma, 1970), and vocational counseling and career development (Lewis & Gilhousen, 1981). Understanding one's irrational belief system, disputing those beliefs, and creating a new, more rational system can be helpful in many environments including home, school, or work. The purpose of this article is to discuss the application of Rational Emotive Therapy to vocational counseling and to describe irrational beliefs that create mental, emotional, and performance problems in the workplace.

Several authors have applied Ellis's theory to the field of vocational counseling (Thompson, 1976; Weinrach, 1980; Lewis & Gilhousen, 1981). Thompson (1976) described several irrational beliefs held by college-aged students such as: the belief that there is one correct career choice for each individual and that one should strive to find that perfect career, the belief that during a certain developmental period, one makes a vocational choice and will stay with that career until retirement, the belief that there are vocational tests which can match one with the perfect career choice and remove one from the decison making process altogether, and the belief that there is a direct correlation between a worker's abilities and job satisfaction.

Weinrach (1980) used case examples to describe how irrational beliefs can influence a worker's mental and emotional status. The irrational beliefs Weinrach focused on were: 1) I must do well at all times and seek others approval for my work, and 2) Everyone should treat me fairly and kindly at all times, and if they don't they should be punished.

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Borders and Archadel (1987) discussed how incorrect expectations related to self-efficacy and self-image can affect a woman's career choices. These authors outlined core self-beliefs related to a negative self-image which can greatly affect a woman's career choices. Some of these include: "I am not a worthwhile person, therefore I do not deserve to go to college" and, "I am not an intelligent person, therefore I do not have the ability to go to college" (Borders & Archadel, 1987, p.73).

In a workbook designed for liberal arts students, Figler (1979) described several myths surrounding career decision-making. Some of these included: my major determines my career, a liberal arts graduate has few talents which are valuable in the workforce, and career planning is an irreversible process.

Lewis and Gilhousen (1981) also discussed career myths and the irrational beliefs underlying them. They proposed that fallacies concerning career choices are passed along in our society with little challenge to the rationality of these misconceptions. Focusing on seven myths brought to the college career counseling center by students, the authors provided the underlying core irrational beliefs or statements which perpetuate these myths and also discussed alternative rational ideas concerning career decision-making. Their seven myths of career development centered around the following irrational beliefs:

1. I must be absolutely certain before I can act.
2. Career development involves only one decision.
3. If I change I have failed.
4. If I can just do *this*, then I will be happy.
5. My work should satisfy all my needs.
6. I can do anything as long as I'm willing to work hard enough.
7. My worth as a person is integrally related to my occupation.

(Lewis & Gilhousen, 1981, p.297-99).

These irrational beliefs are exemplified by various client statements such as: "I want to be sure that I don't have to change majors at midyear," "I should decide on a career," "I feel that if I start this, I have to finish," "In order to be happy, I must have a college education," "I feel useless when I'm not working," "Since I'm not doing well, all I need to do is work harder," and "There is no way I could be happy doing anything else" (Lewis & Gilhousen, 1981, p.297-99). Helping clients challenge the rationality of these statements and providing an alternative belief system can be helpful in dispelling some of these myths and relieving some of the anxiety surrounding career decision-making (Lewis & Gilhousen, 1981).

IRRATIONAL BELIEFS IN THE WORKPLACE

Irrational belief systems can continue to plague workers on the job and throughout the career life span. New myths may substitute for, or become extensions of, the original myths that Lewis and Gilhousen described. This can affect worker morale, performance, and mental and emotional states both on and off the job. The remainder of this article will describe some of the irrational beliefs or myths that are perpetuated in the workforce today and suggest substitutes for more rational living and working.

THE "SUGAR DADDY" MYTH

This myth is based on Ellis's irrational belief that people, and/or the world, should be fair and just (Ellis, 1975). People who believe this myth believe that if they work hard enough and follow the rules of the game then they will be taken care of, treated fairly, justly compensated, etc. The "Sugar Daddy" myth embodies various irrational statements such as:

> "The system (company, agency, corporation, school district, university, etc.) is fair and just."
>
> "And if I work hard and follow the rules I should be rewarded."
>
> "And if I am not justly rewarded, I have a right to be angry, bitter, give up, put in my time, etc."

A more rational view of the workplace allows the worker to realize that it is not always a fair and just place and that simply playing by the rules will not insure judicious treatment. Dyer (1976) suggested that "we teach people how to treat us" and that if we are not happy with a situation or how we are being treated, we can take action toward changing the situation in some way. In this way the worker can take more responsibility for desired outcomes or treatment in the workplace rather than wasting time and energy being angry at others or the situation.

THE "YELLOW BRICK ROAD" MYTH

This myth is based on an extension of the irrational belief that the world is a fair and just place. This extension says that the world is totally predictable and that there is one right way of doing something — if A then B. People who believe this myth often spend a great deal of time and energy searching for and making sure they get on the "Yellow Brick Road." These irrational statements take several forms such as:

> "There is one path to success and I must find it and get on it."
>
> "There is one set of credentials that lead to success and I must find what these are and get them."
>
> "There is one way to dress, think, or act in order to be successful."
>
> "I must be competitive and aggressive in order to get ahead."
>
> "There is no room for humor in the workplace. This is serious business."

C.W. Metcalf, a well known business consultant and humorist, spends much of his life dispelling the myth that there is one way of being in order to succeed or be happy in the workplace (Leydens, 1987). Metcalf describes the current image of professionalism as one of being hard-nosed, hard-headed, hard-working, and critical with rarely a good thing to say about anyone. Metcalf instills humor into the workplace hoping to change this image.

Other rational alternatives to this myth may include reminding oneself that there are many ways of approaching work and that whether or not your job provides personal satisfaction or self-fulfillment may be a better evaluative measure that trying to find someone else's pre-determined path toward success.

THE "SOMEWHERE OVER THE RAINBOW" MYTH

As in the movie *The Wizard of Oz*, the "Somewhere Over the Rainbow" myth is an extension of "The Yellow Brick Road." Not only is there one correct path to follow in one's career, there is also an appropriate point one should be at during any given period in one's career. The irrational statements involved in this myth may include:

> "I should have attained a certain level of success, pay, recognition

in my field by this point and I am a miserable failure because I haven't."

"I am also a miserable failure because I did not become famous, win the Pulitzer or Nobel Prizes, write a book, cure cancer, become president of the company, etc."

A more rational viewpoint would challenge the standards for success that are set up by this myth and also challenge the idea that there are certain correct timelines for accomplishments in life. Setting one's own goals based on one's needs, desires, and values can provide for a more rational and personally satisfying career path.

THE "MOUSETRAP" MYTH

This myth is related to feelings of self-efficacy and personal power. Some people reach a certain point in their jobs or careers and feel trapped. They are not happy or satisfied with their situation but they feel helpless to do anything about it. They are unable to see any options. This myth could be related to several irrational statements:

"I *must* stay in this job because of retirement, tenure, family, etc."

"There is nothing I can do about it."

"I'm only one person, I can't change anything."

"I have no other options."

Virginia Satir (1972) has said that if a person sees only one possibility, this results in feeling trapped, two recognized choices constitute a dilema, and the advent of three options is the real beginning of choice and empowerment. A rational approach to this myth would be to realize that one can create options for oneself and that in the end this may actually take less time and energy than remaining trapped in an unsatisfying situation.

THE "I WORK THEREFORE I AM" MYTH

This myth goes beyond the concept of self-efficacy and having one's self-worth integrally related to one's occupation. Followers of this myth believe that their very *identity* is inextricably tied up in their work or occupation. They believe that their work, profession, or career define *who* they are as a person. They *are* their work. Therefore if they are not working, are forced to change jobs, or retire they may feel they have lost all sense of purpose in their life because their work or profession was their only source of meaning. This myth can be heard in various irrational statements including:

"I can't take time off or a vacation. Who would do the work?"

"I have nothing to offer anyone now that I'm retired, unemployed, disabled, etc."

"I can't go to lunch, exercise, etc. I have too much to do."

Anne Wilson Schaef discusses this dilema in her book, *When Society Becomes An Addict* and more fully expands this idea in an up-coming work with Diane Fassel called *The Addictive Organization*. Schaef & Fassel believe that our society and organizations foster the attitude of total dedication and even addiction to the job because "the best-adjusted person in the society is the person who is not dead and not alive, just numb, a zombie . . . because when you are fully alive, you are constantly saying no to many of the processes of the society" (Schaef & Fassel, 1988).

In order to rationally dispell this myth, one needs to be willing to seek out avenues for fulfillment other than just work and to question one's motivation for making work all-important in one's life. Perhaps, as Schaef & Fassel suggest, work can become the substance of choice in order to avoid facing other aspects of life.

SUMMARY

As part of a system or organization, workers may find themselves surrounded by traditional myths and irrational belief systems. If one blindly accepts these myths as true, behavior and career decisions can become a matter of course rather than choice. Challenging the truth and rationality of these belief systems can be a first step in developing a work setting and career path that is personally satisfying and fulfilling.

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Chickering's Vectors of Development: Implications for Ethnic Minority Students

by Ann F. Denman

With an increase of diverse student groups enrolling in college in the 1960's, growing unrest on campuses spread throughout the country. Students no longer accepted *in loco parentis* in relationship to faculty, staff, and administrators, and the authority structures it created. Such rapid changes in the institution resulted in a certain amount of role confusion for student affairs professionals. To alleviate this confusion, the student affairs profession searched for a new theoretical base to conceptualize how the university would promote intellectual, emotional, and social competencies in its diverse student population. Subsequently, a collection of human development theories applied to postsecondary education was introduced as an effort to redefine the mission and goals of student affairs (Garland, 1985). As these theories developed under the umbrella of *student development theory*, they became utilized by student affairs administrators as a guide to *healthier* student living. Among this loose collection of developmental theories, Chickering's model of student development (Chickering, 1969) has been widely accepted and applied by student affairs practitioners in American higher education institutions. Chickering's model of student development gained its credibility in student affairs because of its holistic approach in understanding the student's intellectual, emotional, and social growth within the campus environment. Chickering's model accepts the notion that both cognitive and emotional needs are equally important to student development.

While Chickering's model of student development (Chickering, 1969) encompasses the vast experiences of the student's collegiate life, biases exist in the model which make it more applicable to the traditional student (i.e., 18-22 year old Anglo-American student) than to the nontraditional student (e.g., ethnic minority student). Chickering's contributions to student development theory are invaluable, yet fall short of recognizing the needs and interests of nontraditional students, in particular ethnically diverse students, who may be adapting to an unfamiliar academic setting.

Thus, the task of the present paper is to address the limitations of Chickering's model of student development (Chickering, 1969). Such shortcomings may limit the generalizability of this model to ethnic minority students because it is based on notions of appropriate behavior (e.g., competence and autonomy) as prescribed by the dominant culture in the United States. These ethnocentric notions do not recognize the social, cultural, historical, and religious traditions that influence ethnic minority students'

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overall development (Wright, 1984; Spaights, Dixon, & Nickolai, 1985). Ethnic minority students may be different from traditional students because they come from diverse backgrounds, experience oppression as an ethnic minority group, face pressures as first family members to attend American universities, and have close family and community ties which they may be unwilling to break in order to attend college (Garland, 1985).

Additionally, Chickering's model espouses values by which all students are evaluated. Such evaluation may not appreciate cultural differences in the expression of human competencies. The lack of such acknowledgement may ignore, and even devalue, the ethnic minority student's own competencies because they are expressed in unfamiliar ways.

Chickering's Vectors of Development

Chickering (1969) suggests that young adults in college develop along seven major elements of change: developing competence, managing emotions, developing autonomy, establishing identity, freeing interpersonal relationships, clarifying purpose, and developing integrity. They are called *vectors of development* because each has a particular direction and magnitude which can be fostered and guided by particular experiences encountered in college, specifically by the residence halls, curriculum, faculty, administration, and student culture, to name a few.

With regard to the first aspect of change, there are three aspects of developing competence: intellectual, social, and physical. Chickering (1969) suggests that the ability to think clearly and critically, to handle abstract concepts, and to participate actively in group discussions fosters a sense of intellectual competence. Such abilities may be developed by providing the college student with varied teaching practices, including discussion classes which encourage students to participate actively in intellectual interchange.

Social or interpersonal competence requires the ability to vary one's roles as both leader and follower, and being sensitive to the concerns and motives of others. The opportunity to associate and participate with peers from diverse backgrounds in residence hall activities, such as group workshops and social events, may nurture such developments (Chickering, 1969).

The development of physical competence involves the awareness of one's emotions, especially aggression, and the ability to manage them. Chickering (1969) suggests that participation in athletic and creative activities allows one to express perhaps repressed or suppressed emotions in a constructive way, while providing evidence of achievement and progress at the same time.

The second vector of development is managing emotions. In this aspect of change, one becomes aware of one's own physical and verbal aggressive tendencies, and sexual emotions, and learns how to express them maturely and constructively. Active participation in such activities as discussions and debates, and assertiveness training provide opportunities to release emotions through controlled activities (Chickering, 1969).

Chickering (1969) suggests that there are three major components with the development of autonomy, the third vector of development: (1) The development of emotional independence, (2) the development of instrumental independence, and (3) the recognition of interdependence. He suggests that to be emotionally independent is to be free from needs for approval and affection from one's parents, peers and institution. A student who has attained emotional independence has developed his/her own set of values and morals apart from the parents and is now willing to venture out, creating new opportunities for oneself.

Instrumental independence has two components: 1) the ability to participate in activities and to cope with problems that arise without seeking help, and 2) the ability to easily move about in relation to one's own needs and desires (Chickering, 1969). The theory proposes that college settings which offer choice and flexibility in curriculum, teaching and evaluation styles, flexibility within the structure and norms of the residence halls, and the provision of mentors that are nonparental adults allow the students to demonstrate oneself and learn to cope with significant tasks alone.

Emotional independence and instrumental independence culminate with the development of interdependence when one becomes conscious of his/her role in a broader context, and is aware of the relationship between his/her own behavior and the community welfare (Chickering, 1969).

The fourth vector of development is the establishment of identity, which consists of a clarification of one's self perception of physical appearance, personal characteristics, and sexual identification. With the establishment of identity, one has gained a sense of balance and perspective about oneself and is at ease concerning problems with academic work, career, interpersonal relationships, marriage, and family life. Freedom from anxiety, varied experiences, and roles that challenge the student allow for meaningful achievements which nurture a greater sense of identity (Chickering, 1969).

Freeing interpersonal relationships is the fifth vector of development. It relies on an increased tolerance for people with different backgrounds, values, habits, and appearances; such tolerance for others increases one's sense of trust. Opportunities that provide significant interchanges with people of diverse backgrounds and attitudes can be satisfying. An increased ease in relationships can result, allowing academic learning to proceed more efficiently and productively (Chickering, 1969).

Chickering (1969) suggests that clarifying purpose, the sixth vector of development, involves formulating plans of action that integrate vocational plans and aspirations, avocational and recreational interests, and choice of lifestyle (including concerns for marriage and family). According to this theory, such long-range goals give shape and meaning to one's existence. Faculty and administrators can help in the goal-setting process by sharing intellectual interests with students in mentoring and/or internship relationships (Chickering, 1969).

The seventh and final vector of development is the development of integrity. It involves the clarification and personalization of a valid set of beliefs and values, and the development of congruence between such values and behavior. The problems that arise in this vector of development are essentially problems of religious belief and conviction. Religious convictions that may have served well in the past, such as those of parents, may need to be renewed or reworked because of their ineffectiveness for the student in the present. Subsequently, a student develops his/her own set of values, so that they become accepted as part of oneself (Chickering, 1969). This model encourages colleges to increase the role of values in the lives of students by providing opportunities for working agreements between students and the institution, such as judicial boards, and teaching/research assistantships with faculty members.

Chickering's Model as It Applies to Ethnic Minority Students

As mentioned, Chickering's (1969) vectors of development emphasize values which encourage individualism, individual achievement, long-range goals, mastery over one's environment, competition, and a structured time orientation (Wright, 1987). Inherent in these values is individual endeavor and success, with rewards primarily benefitting the self. There is a sense that one must delay gratification for the satisfaction of future fulfillment. While these values are pervasive in Western culture, they may not be congruent with values espoused by many ethnic minority groups who may be socialized in environments that encourage an interdependency or connectedness with others, cooperation, a present or flexible time orientation, and living harmoniously with one's environment (e.g., valuing group relations (Wright, 1987).

Chickering fails to acknowledge the influence of economics, cultural background, and racism on ethnic minority students' development of intellectual competence, as seen by the dominant culture (Wright, 1987; Pounds, 1987; Spaights, Dixon, & Nickolai, 1985). Many ethnic minority students come to college academically underprepared to participate actively in class. Low socioeconomic levels, housing trends that have culminated into ghettos and *varrios*, American Indian reservations, and discontinued busing all contribute to segregated and isolated environments. Schools in such environments are often inadequately facilitated and are unable to teach ethnic students the skills that are valued in American colleges (Saufley, Cowan, & Blake, 1983; Spaights, Dixon, & Nickolai, 1985; Vasquez & Chavez, 1980; Wright, 1984, 1987; LaCounte, 1987). Without the academic skills necessary to succeed in American universities, many ethnic minority students may not be prepared to "demonstrate" critical and abstract thinking in these institutions — institutions which may be unfamiliar with ethnic students' cognitive styles. The lack of such academic preparation, as well as the new social environment, may hinder ethnic minority students from developing intellectual competencies as prescribed by American universities.

In addition, the assertive behavior encouraged in Chickering's (1969) vectors of intellectual competence and of the management of emotions (e.g., participation in class discussions, and management of emotions), may not be appropriate for ethnic minority students who may have learned in their own cultures that expressing one's opinions and feelings is dishonorable and rude (Chew & Ogi, 1987; Quevedo-Garcia, 1987). Chickering fails to recognize that many ethnic students learn to resolve conflicts inwardly. For example many Asian American students use willpower as a way to solve their problems (Dr. Stanley Sue, Department of Psychology colloquium, University of Colorado, Boulder, November 3, 1987), and avoid voicing discontent for fear of bringing shame and embarrassment to the family (Chew & Ogi, 1987). Therefore, the open expression of thoughts, opinions, or feelings that Chickering (1969) encourages may be incongruent with many ethnic minority students' experience.

Faculty who view ethnic minorities as intellectually inferior may hinder the ethnic student's development. Some professors may play out such prejudice in class by giving many ethnic minority students "A's" for fear of being called "racist"; and thus, mislead the ethnic minority student by giving an evaluation misrepresentative of the student's progress and mastery of the course material.

In addition, many professors alienate their ethnic students from the learning process by: 1) ignoring ethnics' contributions to scholarly pursuits and social progress; and 2) covering material which does not address the history and experiences of ethnic minority groups in the United States. Such alienation may communicate that ethnic minority students are not valued, nor appreciated in institutions of higher education (Pounds, 1987; Spaights, Dixon, & Nickolai, 1985). Thus, a self-fulfilling prophecy results in that ethnic minority students have little opportunity to build the confidence and motivation necessary to develop increasingly complex skills (Wright, 1987).

With regard to Chickering's vector of developing social or interpersonal competence (e.g., associating with peers from diverse backgrounds), Chickering (1969) did not consider the difficulties that many ethnic students encounter when integrating into a predominantly white institution with few other ethnic minorities to associate. For many ethnic minority students, college may be the first time they have ever lived and/or learned in an integrated environment, and therefore may lack trust for white peers (Pounds, 1987; LaCounte, 1987). Saufley, Cowan, and Blake (1983) suggest that this lack of trust is intensified with the residence halls, where diverse backgrounds and cultures are brought together under one roof and economic class differences are accentuated. With so few other ethnic minorities to meet and with which to identify, ethnic students may often experience feelings of alienation (Wright, 1984; Wright, 1987; Pounds, 1987; Saufley, Cowan, & Blake, 1983).

Relationships are further complicated by pressure to associate with other ethnic minorities because *they are the only ones* (Wright, 1987). Such pressure may stem from naive and misinformed individuals who believe, for instance, that all Asian Americans get along, or that all Hispanics share the same religious and political philosophies (Chew & Ogi, 1987; Pounds, 1987; Quevedo-Garcia, 1987). For example, some people may not realize that many Asian American students come from Vietnam, Samoa, Korea, China, Japan, Guam, or the Philippines, and may not share the same history, religious beliefs, political system, or values (Chew & Ogi, 1987). Many Hispanic students' families of origin come from twenty-five different Spanish-speaking countries, all with different histories, values, and beliefs (Quevedo-Garcia, 1987). Such cultural variables may explain different intragroup experiences of which some non-ethnics may not be aware.

Unwelcome messages received in the classroom, a lack of trust of white peers in the residence halls, and a lack of other ethnic minorities with which to associate complicates the freeing of interpersonal relationships that occurs later in Chickering's fifth vector of development (Chickering, 1969). If ethnic minority students are denied the sense of "belonging" in their environment, then some may not develop the trust necessary to build satisfying relationships with a diverse population of students (Chickering, 1969). In fact, some authors (Vasquez & Chavez, 1980; Upcraft, Finney, & Garland, 1984) suggest that many ethnic minority students are so busy battling the racial barriers mentioned above, that preparing effectively for class discussions, debates, projects, and tests may be difficult.

In his third and fourth vectors of development, the vectors of autonomy and identity, Chickering (1969) stressed the importance of developing one's own set of values and morals without seeking parental help. As one accepts self-perceptions of his/her own personal and physical characteristics, he/she develops a sense of identity. Chickering (1969) does not recognize, however, the supportive cultural community from which many ethnic minority students come, and the influence the community has on individual growth. The development of the ethnic student's identity, therefore, may not occur independently from one's place in the family or community. Many ethnic minority students may view themselves, in fact, as representatives of their family and community first, and as individuals second (Chew & Ogi, 1987; Quevedo-Garcia, 1987; Saufley, Cowan, & Blake, 1983). Such an interdependence places great value on family approval in decision-making. On the contrary, messages received from the institution encourage students to separate from parental ties in order to become autonomous individuals. Such encouragement is obvious in universities' first year requirement of residence hall living. This separation may create internal conflict between retaining the *old* ways and taking on the *new*. An unnecessary distance between the ethnic minority student and his/her family origin occurs when university policy forces all students to develop emotionally in identical ways (e.g., residence hall living requirements).

Wright (1987) suggests that for many ethnic minority students, beliefs and values are often tied to questions about cultural identity. A college environment that overlooks and even devalues ethnic minority cultures in its teaching practices, curriculum, admissions process, and administration, faculty and staff selection processes, alienates many ethnic minority students. Saufley, Blake, & Cowan (1983) suggest that self-doubts and fears are heightened when such isolation is further complicated by separation from a supportive cultural community. Such an environment, then, hinders the ethnic student's development of identity and self-esteem.

It is important to address Chickering's (1969) sixth vector of development, clarifying purpose, because it encourages making long-range plans such as career, family, marriage, and lifestyle. Chickering (1969) may not recognize that for many ethnic minority students, such long-range issues cannot be resolved until more crucial concerns are resolved. Such concerns may involve the ethnic minority student's struggle to survive in a predominantly white campus and to feel a sense of belonging in the community or society in which he/she is trying to excel. It may be that until an ethnic minority student feels that he/she is validated and valued as an ethnic individual, he/she will not have the resources or confidence to consider long-range plans such as career, or lifestyle.

Because Chickering's (1969) vectors of development are widely accepted and practiced by student affairs practitioners, it is important to recognize and understand the implications, and perhaps limitations, they may have for ethnic minority students. Chickering (1969) bases his theory on Western notions of human behavior and assumes that all students, regardless of ethnicity, value such notions. He fails to recognize that many ethnic minority students come from different cultures that may value strengths and competencies quite different from those valued in mainstream America.

Furthermore, Chickering fails to recognize environmental variables which influence the development of ethnic minority students who must live and learn in an environment quite different from their own. Environmental variables such as economics, cultural traditions, and racism influence the development of ethnic minority students in significant ways. Chickering's lack of acknowledgement of such cultural differences may ignore, and even devalue, the ethnic student's experience on predominatly white college campuses. Chickering's model suggests that all students must acquire particular skills necessary for productive lives, while ignoring that such skills, or the paths to such skills, may be inappropriate for students of diverse cultural backgrounds.

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Author Notes

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Employment Counseling as a Counseling Specialty

by Robert S. Zeiger

Employment Service counselors seem to be the subject of the same sort of stereotyping victimizing school and other counselors. They are not generally, despite beliefs to the contrary, harried, uncaring, marginally-qualified, paper-focused, hurry-up-and-get-a-job oriented. To the contrary, employment counseling, as practiced in the public Employment Service (Job Service), is a true branch of psychological counseling, although it is not a therapeutic type of counseling.

Employment counseling in the public Employment Service exhibits, in fact, the generally accepted marks of a profession. It possesses a unique body of knowledge related specifically to problems of choosing, changing, or adjusting to work. It has had codes of employment counseling ethics for at least twenty years. The minimum education required of a counselor trainee in the Employment Service in Colorado is a master's degree or equivalent with promotion to journey-level counselor requiring an additional year of professional experience. Specialized training and professional experience requirements are prescribed for certification as an "Employment Vocational Counselor." Employment counseling also possesses its own professional organization, the Colorado Employment Counselors' Association, a division of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development.

Employment counseling is neither employment (job placement) interviewing nor rehabilitation counseling. It is a highly specialized branch of counseling, involving unique ends and methods and great technical expertise. Unfortunately, this has not been well known or understood within the counseling profession.

Employment counseling is a distinct branch of psychological counseling that deals with problems of work. A Departmental Letter, *Counseling Resources Guide for Colorado*, (Colorado Department of Labor and Employment, 1986) cautions that it should be distinguished from rehabilitation counseling, a specialty that assists the disabled in attaining gainful employment by overcoming or compensating for a disability. Rehabilitation counseling employs medical and surgical and other rehabilitative services, as well as purely psychological methods. Although employment counselors refer their clients to training or other non-psychological methods to become job-ready, they do not employ medical, surgical, or rehabilitative services in dealing with the handicapped. Instead, employment counseling helps applicants achieve vocational adjustment at as satisfactory social, economic,

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and skill level as possible, according to *"Employment Counseling and Testing Policies and Procedures."* (Colorado Department of Labor and Employment, 1987).

Thus, in the Employment Service, employment counseling is the process whereby a qualified employment counselor or a qualified counselor-trainee assists clients to gain a better understanding of themselves in relation to the world of work, so that the client can more realistically choose or change an occupation or make a suitable job adjustment. This includes individual and group counseling.

Most people who come to the Job Service Center are qualified for certain types of work based on work experience or training. They are job-ready. They need assistance in finding the type of work they are qualified to do. Employment interviewers (placement officers) deal with these applicants. Other applicants, however, do not know what kind of work they can do or what kind of work they would like to do. Their qualifications are not evident, and their choices unrealistic. They are not job-ready. Employment counselors help these applicants enhance their employability so that they can find jobs which will make the best use of their abilities and in which they can make a worthwhile contribution to society.

Clients presenting the following problems often are referred to employment counselors:

> Clients who cannot be placed at once because it is not clear what they are qualified to do;
>
> Clients who can be assigned classifications on the basis of past work experience, but for some reason they do not want to, or cannot, continue in previous occupations;
>
> Clients who are quite competent to perform the duties of the work they are seeking, but are experiencing unusual difficulty in obtaining or holding suitable employment; and
>
> Clients who evidence poor work habits, such as chronic tardiness or absenteeism.

Regardless of the clients' needs, Employment Service counselors are not therapists and offer no long-range therapeutic help to clients. Lacking the time, privacy, physical facilities, and administrative authority to provide therapeutic help, they understand their limitations. When encountering clients with serious personal or emotional maladjustments, they refer clients for diagnosis and treatment to other agencies such as the Division of Rehabilitation, Mental Health counselors, school counselors, marriage and family therapists, licensed social workers, and licensed psychologists. While employment counselors can deal with incidental problems of emotion, affect, and feeling, they do not treat emotional disorders.

In some cases of referral, the counselor's assistance in resolving problems of choice, change, or work adjustment continues with assistance rendered by other organizations. The counselor often enters joint case conferences with organizations to coordinate efforts.

Employment counseling is reality-oriented, and employs more of a rational, cognitive approach than one of emotional interaction or dealing with the client's emotional problems. Employment counseling deals primarily with vocational problems, with the ultimate goal of placement in suitable employment.

Assisting clients to make decisions on the basis of the best available information and the client's values, employment counseling emphasizes the responsibility of the client to choose a course of action through examining the logical consequences. It also emphasizes the freedom and the responsibility in deciding not to act at all.

Employment Service counselors help clients prepare resumes, letters of application, and present themselves in the best light in a job interview. They may conduct job readiness training, group sessions for clients with similar vocational problems, interpret the client's qualifications to employers, or show employers how certain limitations detract from the client's ability to perform the job.

In the public Employment Service, counselors generally have the responsibility of making placements as well as counseling. The participation of the counselor in the placement process enhances the counselor's capability through a thorough understanding of job market conditions. Once counselors have taken on a case, they ordinarily provide job placement services. The focal point of employment counseling comes in the actual job referral.

Many consider employment counseling and employment interviewing as interchangeable words. However, employment interviewing may be defined as a face-to-face discussion between an Employment Service interviewer and an applicant for the purpose of (a) obtaining information about the applicant's qualifications for work; (b) ascertaining applicant need for employment counseling; and (c) providing information which increases the applicant's placement opportunities. Employment counseling and interviewing both involve obtaining and giving information, influencing the applicant and require systematic recording of pertinent data. Both are usually accompanied by a warm, human interest on the part of the counselor or job placement interviewer. However, employment counselors deal primarily with applicants who are not job-ready; job placement interviewers deal with job-ready applicants.

Other basic differences exist between employment interviewing and employment counseling. Purposes differ as do methods and techniques. The employment interview is structured to secure information about the applicant's present qualifications for work and the applicant's preferences as to location, wages, hours, and working conditions. This can usually be accomplished in a single interview. An interview giving information about an occupational field is not counseling if the applicant does not get help in relating the applicant's interests and abilities to the field.

The purpose of employment counseling is to relate the applicant's present and potential qualifications to work, select kinds of work or training to enhance employability, or assist the applicant to recognize and resolve problems of job choice, change, or adjustment. Employment counseling should assist applicants to better understanding themselves in relation to the world of work. The process, usually involves assessment of the applicant's present and potential abilities, often by the use of interest inventories and aptitude tests, as well as providing pertinent occupational information. Counseling is seldom completed in one session.

During the counseling session, applicants identify their interests and personal characteristics and relate them to occupations, industries, and the job market in order to develop a plan for progression in an ever-changing world of work.

Many human service organizations prepare their clients to be job-ready. As such, they are "producers" of labor, which may be viewed as a commodity affected by supply and demand. The result may lead clients who, having just achieved job-readiness, are less competitive than others in the labor market. However, Job Service is a "consumer" of such labor. It has the greatest number of job openings of any human service organization and is a public labor exchange operating without charge to applicants for employment services.

Human service agencies should be aware and make use of Job Service's job openings and specialized employment counseling. More interaction with employment counselors through consultation and referrals, joint case conferences, and the exchange of confidential information, should aid in maximizing services to clients, minimizing duplication of services, and reduce any "playing off" of one agency against another by manipulative clients. In some instances, the desirability of such interaction may even dictate the conclusion of formal interagency agreements.

Counselors with an interest in the vocational problems of clients, especially rehabilitation, school, and mental health counselors, are encouraged to join their own division of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development, and the employment counselors' professional association, the Colorado Employment Counselor's Association.

Budget cuts since the heyday of the War on Poverty, and the cessation of training in employment counseling within institutions of higher education have reduced the number of employment counselors in publically funded institutions. Professional counseling organizations could stem the tide by insisting that qualified counselors be employed to perform employment counseling functions in public agencies. And institutions of higher learning could help remedy the lack of training by resuming the offering of courses, and possibly degree majors, in employment counseling. The need for employment counseling is great and the time to deliver is now.

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Career Development and Individual Psychology: The Formation Of An Occupational Identity Based On Adlerian Thinking

by David Lemire

Unfortunately, the thinking of Alfred Adler is much underrated in counseling and human development. Adler is usually presented as some sort of "neo-Freudian" in textbooks (Shertzer and Stone, 1980) when, in fact, it is more accurate to think of Freud as the neo-Adlerian (because Adler's work is much more relevant and seminal than Freud's work). Adler's thinking has also been underrepresented in the area of career development and occupational identity. The general lack of awareness of Adlerian thinking in professional circles is somewhat surprising since much of Adler's writing was done in the first part of this century; so it has been around for a considerable period of time. Nevertheless, what Adler said is particularly cogent in terms of occupational development: "The three ties in which human beings are bound (occupation, community, and intimacy) set the three problems of life; but none of these problems can be solved separately, each of them demands a successful approach to the other two. (Adler, 1931, p. 239). Adler discussed the idea of occupational development from the context of "division of labor," (p. 240). "It was because (humans) learned to cooperate that we could make the great discovery of the division of labor. . . . Through the division of labor we can use the results of many different kinds of training and organize many different abilities. . . ." (p. 240).

In his writing, Adler spoke directly to the idea of the occupational identity being formed early in life. "A mother is the first influence in the development of her children's occupational interests." (p. 242). Early in this century Adler did what he called "vocational guidance." He stated, "I always ask how the individual began and what he was interested in during his first years." (p. 242). While we now speak of "career development" rather than "vocational guidance," Adler's emphasis is still correct.

As will be shown, Adler's thinking is consistent with more current authors as well:

> A child's awareness of the world of work has already begun to develop even before the first day of school. Casual observation of preschoolers at play demonstrates the ease with which they assume a variety of work roles — police officer, cowpuncher, teacher, physician, nurse, and so forth. A walk through the toy department or a glance at preschool picture books further confirms the early emphasis on occupational roles. Consequently, even in the

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> earliest primary years, the child has a readiness for considering 'world of work' material. Herr (1970), recongizing the high regard that youngsters hold for work, emphasizes that a crucial issue of preserving these positive attitudes toward work so that they may become foundations of more realistic attitudes and understanding." (Isaacson, 1986, p. 319).

Adler also noted the importance of schools in vocational or career development. "The next step for training is made by the schools; and I believe that our schools now are giving more attention to the future occupation of the child . . ." (p. 242). Unfortunately, at the present time schools really do not focus on occupational development well. Even with such mandates as Vocational Individual Education Plans for special education students, career development is a barely addressed need. If we consider Adler's basic approach that development centers around three primary life tasks — occupation, community, intimacy — then school counselors, administrators, and teachers could be helping students acquire knowledge and skills in each of these areas. This author believes that it is accurate to say that most public schools provide barely adequate subject matter training, but not much real education and skill development in important affective areas. Certainly there is no systematic, complete, and articulated education in the affective areas.

According to Adler, the selection of an occupation, and the concomitant crystalization of the occupational identity, reflects the child's "style of life" (or what is now called the Adlerian Life Style). The "style of life" is the characteristic ways in which the individual moves through life. In Individual Psychology the "early recollections" have significance. In Adler's thinking, early recollections provided information to be used in "vocational guidance" (or career development).

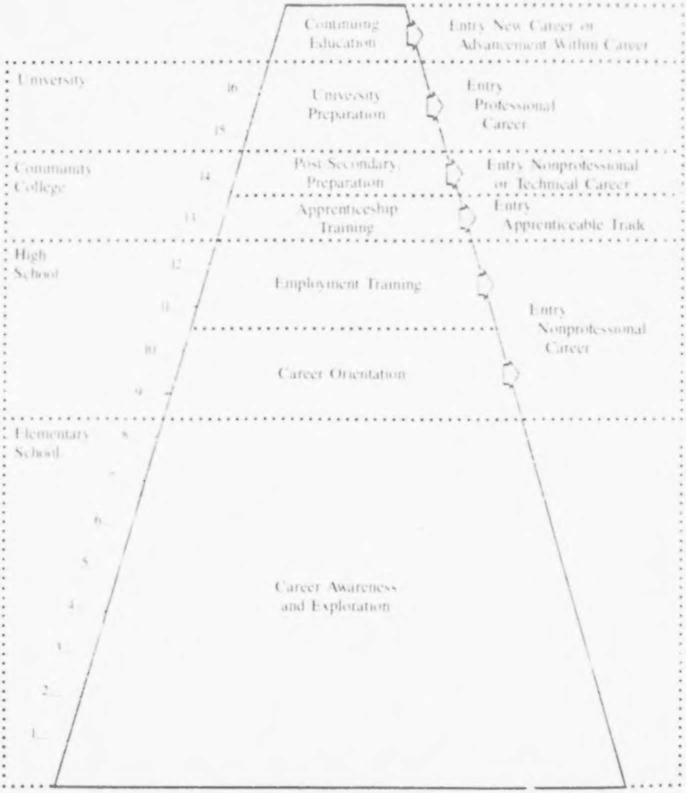
> In vocational guidance, first memories should be considered very important. A child mentions impressions of some one talking to him, of the sound of the wind or of a bell ringing. We know that he is an acoustic type and we can guess that he might be suited for some profession connected with music. In other recollections we can see impressions of movement. These are individuals who demand more activity; perhaps they would be interested in occupations which demanded outside labor or travel. (p. 245).

Adler concludes by stating, "By watching children we can often see them training for an occupation in adult life." (p. 245).

Interestingly, Adler also emphasized the importance of lifelong learning, though he did not call it that. He stated, "We may be helped . . . by furthering movements for training schools, technical schools, and adult education." (p. 251). In short, the Adlerian approach to career development can be summarized in five stages reflecting the Adlerian concept of Life Style and movement in life which is consistent with this Life Style. The reader may assume that the interests which are formed early in life find expression throughout life. Society is just now emphasizing the kind of learning and occupational development that may occur late in life. This orientation is a reasonable extension of Adler's concepts.

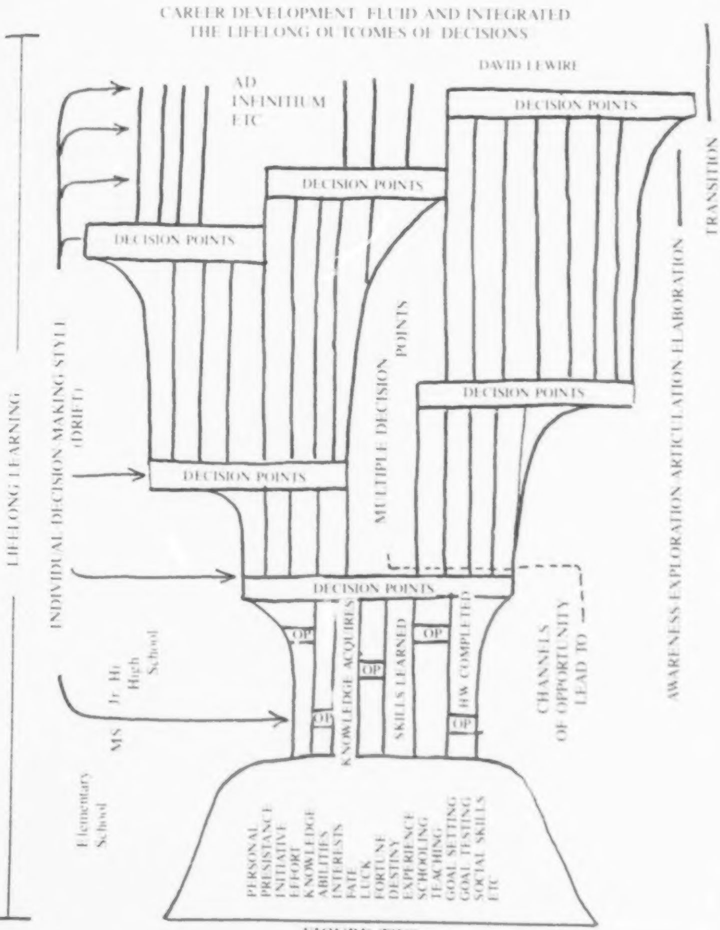
The six stages or levels of Adlerian Career Development Process (ACDP) are awareness, exploration, articulation, elaboration, and transition. Awareness, the first stage, occurs when the occupational identity is just developing. The awarness stage occurs from birth to about the middle school or junior high years. About this time awareness turns into exploration. In the exploration stage, the individual begins investigating his/her options. The person looks around at life with the question, "What can I do?" At the third stage, articulation, specific decisions are being made which either narrow or widen the channels of opportunity that life presents. The articulation stage is usually (in America) associated with graduation from high school or college, though no rigid rule can be applied. In the elaboration stage (stage four) refinements in career decision-making occur within the channels of opportunity. For example, at this point a school teacher might choose to become a school counselor or principal. The transition stage (stage five) occurs when career development changes are made. These career changes will occur as an expected part of adulthood for many people in our society. The transition stage takes people back into the ACDP at levels one, two, three, or four.

FIGURE ONE A CAREER DEVELOPMENT HIERARCHY


Continuing Education
Entry New Career or Advancement Within Career
University
16
University Preparation
Entry Professional Career
15
Community College
14
Post Secondary, Preparation
Entry Nonprofessional or Technical Career
13
Apprenticeship Training
Entry Apprenticeable Trade
High School
12
Employment Training
11
Entry Nonprofessional Career
10
Career Orientation
9
Elementary School
8
6
5
4
3
2
1
Career Awareness and Exploration

Source Unknown

There is contemporary support for Adler's concepts in published literature. The author notes that Adler mentioned three primary "life tasks": occupation, community, and intimacy. According to Campbell and Cellini (1980), one of the major thinkers in the area of adult career development (Schein, 1978) refers to development which occurs in three areas, "biosocial, familial, and career," (p. 4). Schein's thinking seems unusually similar to Adler's thinking, articulated about half a century earlier. In addition, Krumboltz, Mitchell and Jones (1978) mention the importance of "social forces which affect occupational availability and requirements," (p. 127). This point of view is highly consistent with Adler's emphasis upon social interest and the development of the social orientation of individuals, (p. 240, in 1931). Finally, Bradley (1984), in a monograph on lifelong career assessment, mentions the importance of assessment from childhood to late adult.


CAREER DEVELOPMENT FLUID AND INTEGRATED
THE LIFELONG OUTCOMES OF DECISIONS

DAVID LEWIRE

AD
INFINITIUM
ETC
DECISION POINTS
DECISION POINTS
DECISION POINTS
DECISION POINTS
DECISION POINTS
DECISION POINTS
TRANSITION
AWARENESS EXPLORATION ARTICULATION ELABORATION
LIFELONG LEARNING
INDIVIDUAL DECISION MAKING STYLE (DRIFT)
MULTIPLE DECISION POINTS
CHANNELS OF OPPORTUNITY LEAD TO
OP
OP
OP
OP
OP
KNOWLEDGE ACQUIRES
SKILLS LEARNED
HW COMPLETED
Jr. Hi
High School
MS
Elementary School
PERSONAL
PRESISTANCE
INITIATIVE
EFFORT
KNOWLEDGE
ABILITIES
INTERESTS
FATE
LUCK
FORTUNE
DESTINY
EXPERIENCE
SCHOOLING
TEACHING
GOAL SETTING
GOAL TESTING
SOCIAL SKILLS
ETC

FIGURE TWO

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Previous thinking about career development has been conceptualized in a narrow linear model (see Figure One). While this model begins with career awareness and exploration, the focus of choices is limited reductionistically and apparently ends at college. With Adlerian Career Development Process (ACDP), this narrow linear idea is altered and broadened. Rather than narrowing options, the ACDP model identifies what can be called Opportunity Channels (OCs) which widen with experience (see Figure Two).

Figure Two represents a model which starts with a person's skills, habits, and talents, and from these skills, habits, and talents channels of opportunity are created. As each person reaches greater maturity and decision points, the channels of opportunity widen or narrow, depending upon the kinds of decisions made at each decision point. The decisions made at each decision point are influenced directly by the kind of decision-making style used by each person (there are five decision-making styles: dependent, rational, impulsive, fatalistic, and intuitive (see Lemire, 1982, and Krumboltz, 1977). The channels of opportunity model is conceptualized within the context of lifelong learning and choices. Thus, opportunity is always presenting itself and the channels of opportunity are either widening or narrowing, depending upon the decisions made. For example, let us say that you have a forty-year-old person who, through divorce, is now on his/her own. (The divorce is decision one). This person chooses to return to college late in life to become a teacher (decision two). Once the education training is completed the person may choose to stay in the college town (decision 3a). If this person chooses decision 3a, then channels of opportunity are narrowed. If, on the other hand, the person chooses to go anywhere a teacher is wanted (decision 3b) then channels of opportunity are widened.

Up to this point, the author has discussed the emergence of a career development model based on the thinking of Alfred Adler. The Adlerian Career Development model contains four discrete elements:

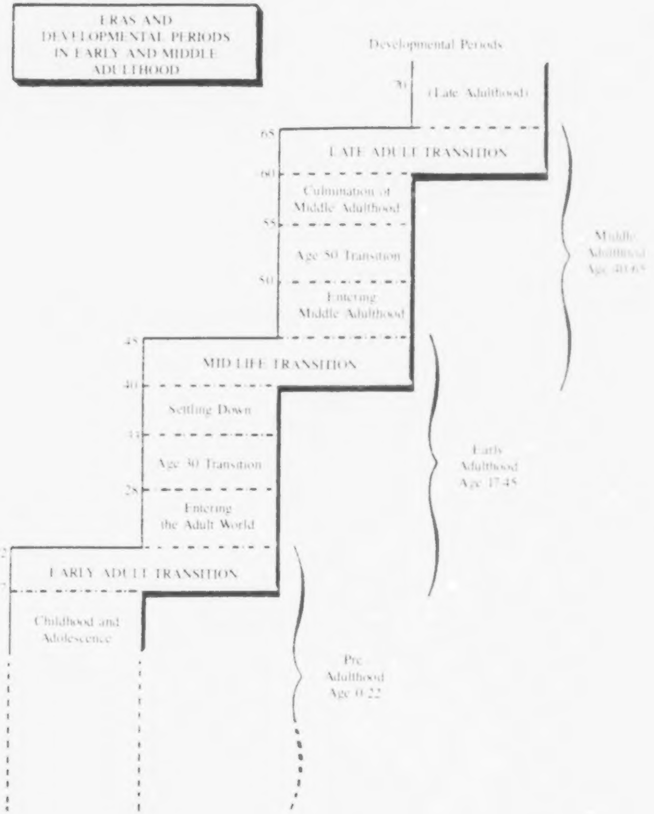
(1) Adlerian Career Development Theory (ACDT) reflects a universal process. That is, ACDT applies to individuals from birth to death. ACDT is universal in that it is an experience which all people go through including such groups as displaced homemakers, re-entering adults, and mid- and late-life changers.

(2) ACDT is non-gender biased. ACDT applies to both men and women, though there do appear to be differences between the way men and women make their choices and express the Style of Life (Griffin-Pierson, 1985). These gender-based differences are represented in Figures Three and Four. Figure Three is the Levinson model. The Levinson model is a linear developmental process which reflects Levinson's research on male development (1978). Levinson's model describes life stages and transition points which are analogous to the channels of opportunity and decision points described in Figure Two. Figure Four represents a view of life changes that is fluid and multi-dimensional, rather than linear. Figure Four is a model that Boyce (1980) suggests is typical of women. The Adlerian model, presented in Figure Two, contains elements of both the linear male model and the fluid female model. Hence, the Alderian model is androgynous.

(3) ACDT is comprehensive. Using the Social Learning model of Krumboltz, et. al., (1978), it can be noted that much of life's experience can be included within the Adlerian model. These elements of life include such things as genetic endowment and special abilities, environmental conditions,

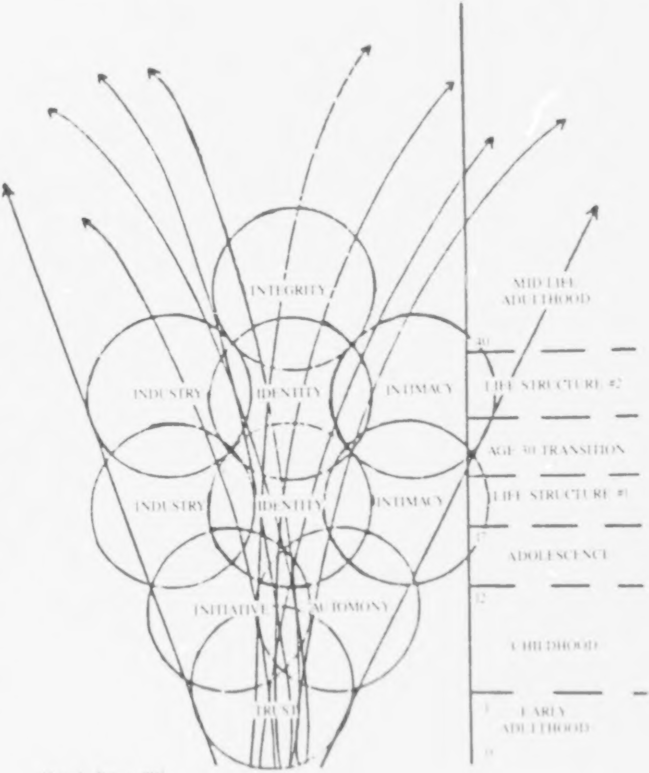
learning experiences, and task-approach skills. As a wholistic model, ACDT emphasizes the totality of human experience. ACDT looks for the specific, idiosyncratic expression of human experience representing the developed or developing personality.

FIGURE THREE
THE SEASONS OF A MAN'S LIFE


ERAS AND DEVELOPMENTAL PERIODS IN EARLY AND MIDDLE ADULTHOOD
Developmental Periods
70
(Late Adulthood)
65
LATE ADULT TRANSITION
60
Culmination of Middle Adulthood
55
Age 50 Transition
50
Entering Middle Adulthood
45
MID LIFE TRANSITION
40
Settling Down
33
Age 30 Transition
28
Entering the Adult World
22
EARLY ADULT TRANSITION
17
Childhood and Adolescence
Middle Adulthood Age 40-65
Early Adulthood Age 17-45
Pre-Adulthood Age 0-22

SOURCE: Adapted from Daniel J. Levinson, *The Seasons of a Man's Life*. Copyright 1978 by Daniel J. Levinson. Reprinted by permission of Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

(4) Adlerian Career Development Theory reflects modern thinking about the importance of life changes and passages. The reader can consider such authors as Levinson (1978), or in Campbell and Cellini (1980), and Boyce (1985) as representative of modern thinking which is consistent with Adlerian concepts. Given the Adlerian emphasis upon adult development, it is a small step to include leisure time/retirement as one of the life changes or passages that must be completed successfully in order to maintain positive healthy development. As was stated earlier, Levinson's model and Boyce's model are presented in Figures Three and Four.


INTEGRITY
MID LIFE
ADULTHOOD
40
INDUSTRY
IDENTITY
INTIMACY
LIFE STRUCTURE #2
AGE 30 TRANSITION
INDUSTRY
IDENTITY
INTIMACY
LIFE STRUCTURE #1
17
ADOLESCENCE
12
INITIATIVE
AUTOMONY
CHILDHOOD
3
TRUST
EARLY
ADULTHOOD
0

Mary E. Boyce, 1981

FIGURE 4
A Model of Female Psychosocial Development

SUMMARY

It is clear that Adlerian Career Development Theory appears compatible with modern career development thinking as described by such authors as Krumboltz (1978) and Gottfredson (in Miller, 1986; and in Hesketh, 1985). These newer approaches to career development emphasize process which is essential to the Adlerian model. It is also clear that Alfred Adler was a formative thinker in the area of human development. This author has presented the view that many of the newer approachs to career development may be considered neo-Adlerian in their orientation because they restate and emphasize things, issues, and concepts Adler discussed half a century earlier. The Adlerian model of career development has the advantages of a wholistic orientation within which other less complete approaches can be synthesized.

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Duty to Warn: Implications for School Counselors

by Sarah F. Shaw and Judith A. Praul

Malpractice litigation against mental health professionals is increasing in frequency (Hopkins & Anderson, 1985). Although school counselors have seldom been sued for failing to practice in a professional manner, the increase in this type of litigation suggests a need for concern on the part of school counselors (Gross & Robinson, 1987; Henderson, 1987). This article addresses one area of potential legal concern for school counselors, the duty to warn. Further, questions are suggested to provide guidance to counselors in the establishment of procedures for determining possible action in potential duty to warn situations.

Mental health professionals are expected to practice in accordance with legal standards and the ethical codes of their profession in providing services to their clients. If they fail to take due care and act in good faith, they are liable to a civil suit. "Civil liability means that an individual can be sued for not doing right or for doing wrong to another" (Corey, Corey, & Callanan, 1988, p. 230). A malpractice suit can result if a professional fails to provide proper service and an injury or loss occurs to the client because of the failure. An additional legal obligation has been placed on mental health professionals which includes a third-party responsibility on the part of the professional. A third-party responsibility occurs when a client presents a serious threat of violence to another person. The professional then may have an obligation to warn the potential victim or other appropriate persons of the possible violence from the client. This obligation, imposed on psychotherapists, resulted from a California Supreme Court case in which the court ruled psychotherapists have a duty to warn or otherwise protect an intended victim from violence on the part of a client (Tarasoff v. Regents of the University of California, 1976). Included in the decision of the court were the following: (a) psychotherapists are responsible to determine whether a client presents a danger of violence to others, (b) psychotherapists owe a duty of care to persons who are not in a counseling relationship with them but who may be in danger of violence from a client, and (c) confidentiality is not to be maintained when a client poses a danger of violence to another person.

In the Tarasoff case, an outpatient client in a university hospital confided to his psychologist that he intended to kill a woman, a former friend, who was out of the United States at that time. Following psychiatric consultation the decision was made to attempt to have the client committed to the university hospital for observation and evaluation. The campus police were notified and asked to find and detain the client for commitment. The campus police located the client and following an interview, released him. The police were

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satisfied he was rational and no danger to others. Unfortunately, no further action was taken on the part of the psychologist or the psychiatrists. In fact, the chief of psychiatry ordered all notes and letters concerning the client be destroyed out of concern for the client's confidentiality, and that no order for confinement be placed. Two months later, the client did kill the named victim after she returned to the country. When the parents of the victim learned their daughter's killer had advised his psychologist of his intent to kill her, they brought suit against the psychologist, the psychiatrists, the chief of psychiatry, the campus police, and the regents of the university on the grounds that the intended victim or her parents should have been warned of the danger of violence on the part of the client. The campus police were dismissed from the case based on the reasoning that their expertise did not include the ability to assess the mental condition of the client.

The defendant therapists argued two main points: (a) that therapists, in the present state of the art, cannot reliably predict violent acts, and (b) to give warnings to others of potential violence would result in unnecessary warnings as well as constitute a breach of confidentiality which would undermine the therapeutic relationship. The court did not accept either point as valid for the Tarasoff case and contended that (a) therapists have a responsibility to predict whether a client presents a serious danger to self or others, (b) unnecessary warnings are a "reasonable price to pay" for saving the lives of potential victims, and (c) confidentiality must be broken to prevent danger to others. Further, the court held that in this case the potential for violence was predicted and that a warning was given. However, according to the court the warning did not go far enough, the parents of the victim should have been warned of the possible danger to their daughter's life. Failure to issue such a warning to the parents resulted in the defendants being held negligent in their duty to warn. This ruling set the stage for the therapists to have a responsibility for their clients as well as third-party persons who may be in danger of violence from a client.

According to Reisner (1985), the ruling of the Tarasoff case by the California Supreme Court has had impact on court rulings in at least three other states, Michigan, Nebraska, and New Jersey: McIntosh v. Milano (1979), Lipari v. Sears, Roebuck & Co. (1980), and Davis v. Lhim (1983). In each case, the Tarasoff doctrine was applied "to hold a psychiatrist or psychologist liable for having failed to warn a potential victim" (Reisner, 1985, p. 105). On the other hand, the state of Maryland has rejected the "Tarasoff theory of liability, finding that the statutorily enacted law of privileged communications bars any disclosure to third persons by a psychotherapist" (Reisner, 1985, p. 105). Reisner also reported that many other states have laws similar to Maryland's regarding privileged communications which suggests the theory of liability may be in question or may not apply in those jurisdictions. Further, since only a few cases have been decided through use of the Tarasoff ruling, it is difficult to determine if the theory will be "generally accepted by other jurisdictions and particularly those that have laws similar to Maryland's" (Reisner, 1985, p. 105).

These court rulings relate only to the responsibilities of psychotherapists and do not speak directly to the functions and responsibilities of school counselors. However, prudence and good professional practice suggest school counselors may also have a duty to warn in certain circumstances. If a school counselor is employed in a jurisdiction in which the Tarasoff ruling has been accepted or could be applied, then the counselor will be obligated to the duty to warn. An attorney, preferably a school attorney, should be consulted regarding whether the duty to warn doctrine is applicable in the locale of the school.

A court case in Illinois (Gammon v. Edwardsville Community Unit School District No. 7, 1980) shows how school counselors may be held negligent in failing to follow through with a duty to warn. An eighth-grade student was severely beaten by a school mate in the school yard following a lunch period. The victim had been told by a friend that another student had made threatening remarks against her. The eighth-grader, fearing for her safety, went to the school counselor for help.

The school counselor held a conference with both students, during which the students expressed their differences but the counselor realized they remained quite angry. Before the threatening student left, the counselor informed her no fighting was allowed. Following her departure, the counselor advised the potential victim that she should avoid any confrontations with the threatening student. The student again indicated her fear of being beaten. After the conference with the students, the counselor made no effort to inform any other school personnel (i.e., the assistant principal and the playground supervisors) who might have had an opportunity to supervise the girls during the free period.

At lunch, the threatened student was assured by her friends that the other girl would not harm her. Following lunch, the student went to the school yard where the aggressive student confronted her and hit her in the left eye with her fist. The resulting injuries to the plaintiff were a serious fracture and damage to the orbit of the eye, which required surgery to repair.

In the resulting lawsuit, the plaintiff assserted the aggressive student was a known disciplinary problem and steps should have been taken to directly supervise either the plaintiff or the assailant. Such supervision, it was claimed, would have prevented the altercation from taking place.

In this situation, the counselor had attempted to intervene but had failed to warn other school personnel so that steps could have been taken to protect the student. Assuming the students, who were minors, would act responsibly following a conference could have been a mistake in the counselor's judgment. The court ruling in favor of the plaintiff strongly suggests counselors have a responsibility for intervention beyond direct contact with students, if a potential for violence exists. The counselor should have warned the other appropriate school personnel of the threat to the student.

If a school counselor suspects there may be a potential for violence, the procedures for the application of the duty to warn are still not clear. The Ethical Standards of the American Association for Counseling and Development (1981) do provide some guidance. First and foremost, the welfare of the client is the counselor's primary obligation (B.1.) and confidentiality of the relationship and the information gained therein must be maintained (B.2., B.5.). However, counselors are enjoined that when "there is clear and immminent danger to the client or others, the member must take reasonable personal action or inform responsible authorities" (B.4.). In terms of the duty to warn, it can be concluded that the counselor has a responsibility for the welfare of the client, to maintain confidentiality, and must also take action or inform others if a client is a potential threat of violence to another person. How these duties are to be performed is still open to interpretation.

Court rulings in jurisdictions other than the one in which counselors practice are no more than guidance for future court decisions. Further, the ethical standards give more general guidelines than specific directions. Thus, the counselor is left with the task of determining if a duty to warn responsibility exists and how such a duty should be executed. The overriding principal is to prevent violence from occuring to another person. If confidentiality must be broken, it is better to have prevented violence from occuring to a person than to maintain silence.

The decision to break confidentiality and take further action toward preventing violence is one which must be done with serious consideration of the situation. It is recommended that each school or school district, under the guidance of counselors, establish a set of guidelines and procedures for use in potential duty to warn cases. Using pre-established systematic approach to such a decision will assist in reducing the accompanying emotionality and stress associated with the decision. Further, a systematic approach helps to ensure that all facets of the situation have been carefully considered.

Such a policy should address the following issues:

1. Does the counselor's or other school personnel's knowledge of the student/counselee indicate that the student/counselee does present a danger of violence to others?
2. Does the student/counselee have the ability or the means to carry through with violence toward others?
3. Is there clear and imminent danger of violence to others?
4. What action is needed on the part of the counselor or the school to prevent such violent action from taking place?
5. What person(s) or agencies should be notified and enlisted to assist in the prevention of violence?
    a. Within the school?
    b. Outside the school?
6. Can and should the intervention be contained within the school setting?
7. Can and should the student/counselee be maintained within the school setting or should he or she be placed outside the school setting?
8. How, when, and by whom will the student/counselee be notified of potential actions on the part of the school?
9. How, when, and by whom will the student's parents or guardians be notified of potential actions on the part of the school?
10. If there is an intended victim, how, when, and by whom will he or she be notified of the danger? Further, if the intended victim is a minor what are the responsibilities to the parent/guardian?
11. Does the school distict have guidelines which direct the procedures and courses of action to be followed?
12. Who is responsible for follow-up on the decisions made and the actions taken?

Although the duty to warn has been mainly addressed in the literature as it relates to the responsibilities of psychologists and psychiatrists, school counselors are no longer immune to the necessity of such a consideration. In recognition of the extension of the duty to warn, school counselors will better serve themselves, their schools, and the students if they advocate and become involved in the establishment of a systematic decision-making policy for the determination and disposition of the danger of violence.

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Facilitating the Passage from Adolescence to Adulthood

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One of the primary developmental tasks of the young adult is individuation from the family of origin. As a counseling professional working with adolescents and families I find it useful to be aware of the developmental life cycle of the family (Carter and McGoldrick, 1980) as well as the parallel developmental tasks that parents may be encountering as the teens of the family grapple with establishing identity and attaining separation. In this article I hope to present some empirical research addressing the process of adolescent separation from the family as well as interventions which support this process, in the hope of assisting counselors as they help adolescents and their parents proceed through an admittedly difficult time.

ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT: AN OVERVIEW

Individuation can be a formidable challenge for some adolescents, one which may be aided or impeded by many factors. Some of these include the dynamics of the family and the degree to which parents view separation to be a natural and healthy process. Havighurst (1953) observes the importance of achieving emotional and economic independence from the parents, beginning in adolescence, as a significant developmental task. Erikson (1968) notes the importance of identity formation through the process of distancing oneself from the family and forming more primary relationships among peers He states (1968)

> it is of great relevance to the young individual's identity formation that he be responded to and be given function and status as a person whose gradual growth and transformation make sense to those who begin to make sense to him (p.156).

Thus the adolescent's choice of peers and adult role models play an important function in establishing his or her own sense of identity. A related problem arises if the parents do not support, at some basic level, the adolescent's emerging independence from the family. This might occur when the parent fails to encourage the adolescent's growing sense of autonomy, either overtly or covertly. Shertzer and Stone (1980) claim

> study after study shows that two factors are vital to children's later independence: first, warmly responsible parents who respect each other and on whom children can model themselves while breaking away; second, opportunities to prove their competence in work and love (p.57).

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The first factor assumes parents who are secure in their own identity and who can tolerate and support change: parents who are, in essence, healthy individuals. The second factor assumes that the adolescent has been given the increased freedom and responsibility in which to prove him or herself.

Minuchin (1967) points out that the process of individuation, at best, occurs gradually. As parents give more authority to their children, while expecting more responsibility from them, and as they allow opportunities for adolescents to increase their decision making skills and self-control, individuation follows naturally. However some parents, out of fear for their children's safety out in the world, or because their needs for intimacy are being inappropriately met through their children rather than through their spouses or peers, cannot truly let go. They have difficulty giving their adolescent the freedom needed to try on new roles and capabilities, to experiment with different relationships, and to find out who he or she is as an individual.

ROLE OF THE FAMILY

The redefinition of relationships that is called for, a lessening of dependence between parent and child necessary for individuation, may not be allowed to occur. Minuchin (1974, p. 113) portrays this as characteristic of "enmeshed" families whose "lack of differentiation makes separation from the family an act of betrayal." One member's attempt to change will elicit complementary resistance on the part of other members. Haley (1963) describes this process within the family such that when one person indicates a change in relation to another, the other will act upon the first to diminish and modify the change. When this process occurs in a family with an adolescent, individuation of that person becomes sabotaged by the family dynamics, and natural developmental processes are blocked. Terkelson (1980) states that symptom formation develops when a family member fails to move forward developmentally. Haley (1980) has observed that the highest incidence of psychotic breaks within individuals occur between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one. This is a time of high stress for families that lack the capability to make structural changes; structure meaning the family's organization and methods of functioning. Combrinck-Graham (1985) suggests that the capacity of the family to expand its boundaries and still maintain confidence in its ability to retain identity appears to be built on the foundations of intimacy, communication, and a functional structural foundation, as well as successful prior passages from one life cycle to the next. Thus it makes sense to be familiar with the life cycle of the family as a whole.

THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE

The family life cycle refers to the developmental shifts that occur within the family as a unit, and the changes that are required of the entire family in order to proceed with optimum health for all family members. In *Uncommon Therapy*, Jay Haley (1973) first identified the six stages which are recognized as comprising the family life cycle. These have consequently been elaborated upon by Elizabeth Carter and Monica McGoldrick (1980) in *The Family Life Cycle: A Framework for Family Therapy*. Carter and McGoldrick (1980) catalogued the following six stages in the life of the family:

I. Between families: the unattached young adult
II. The joining of families through marriage: the newly married couple
III. The family with young children
IV. The family with adolescents
V. Launching Children and moving on
VI. The family in later life (p.17).

It is not within the intent or scope of this article to explicate the wealth of information and theory found in the aforementioned books. However, they are both recommended reading for counseling professionals working with families and will most certainly shed light on the passage from adolescence to adulthood, both from the individual and the family perspective.

Carter and McGoldrick (1980) maintain that

> adolescence is something that happens to a family, not just to an individual child. The family boundaries, having remained fairly stable around the nuclear and extended family for twelve or thirteen years, are suddenly required to develop the elasticity needed to alternately let adolescents go, shelter their retreats, and encompass the barrage of people and ideas they bring into the family from the outside. Their pushing and pulling goes outside. Their pushing and pulling goes through the system with a domino effect (p.14).

This is a difficult time in the healthiest of families. The changes that must occur to allow the family to proceed developmentally, according to Carter and McGoldrick (1980, p.17), are: 1) a shifting of parent/child relationships to permit the adolescent to move in and out of the family system, 2) a refocus on mid-life marital and career issues on the part of the adults, and 3) a beginning shift of concern by the parents toward their own parents as they age and need increasing amounts of care. Combrinck-Graham (1985) identifies that these changes are both parallel and reciprocal: that the child's changes allow parents greater freedom to redirect their own interests, while the parents' developing outreach into the community and into their own professional and personal development leaves the children with more opportunities to gain experience and grow on their own.

EFFECTS OF THE PARENTS' RELATIONSHIP

There is much empirical evidence to substantiate the importance of strengthening the parents' marital bond at this time. Teyber (1983) found that college students from families with a primary cross-generational bond (between mother and child) had more difficulty emancipating from the family than did children of families where the marital bond was primary. Clinical observational studies by Lidz (1963) and Wynne (1961) found that parents in very disturbed families were not able to establish a primary emotional bond with each other. Rather they bonded primarily with their children. Bowen (1966) and Haley (1967) theorize that symptoms in children and adolescents develop as a consequence of fathers being cut off from the family emotionally, generational boundaries and role definitions being blurred, or a child being triangulated into parental conflicts. A study by Glick and Kessler (1974) found that the core of the family is the marital dyad, and that a healthy family occurs when spouses have been able to loosen ties with their families of origin and establish the marital coalition as the strongest bond in the family. Thus there is much evidence supporting the concurrent tasks of adolescent individuation and adults refocusing on and strengthening their marital relationship.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING

Boszmenyi-Nagy and Spark (1973) suggest that binding ties and loyalty commitments owed to their parents can prevent offspring from being able to separate psychologically from their families. These individuals may feel guilty about leaving their family and functioning autonomously. Some individuals may not have been allowed to function successfully on their own as this is seen as a betrayal of their need for the family. Others may have developed illnesses which prevent separation from occurring. Any of these symptomatic strategies serve to keep the individual within the family at a time when they should be setting out on their own. As a practitioner, it is important to recognize that the family member who is viewed as a problem or "symptomatic" is often a vehicle for the expression of unresolved and often unrecognized conflict within the family as a whole. Family therapy, rather than individual, is indicated in such situations, especially when the adolescent is deflecting chronic marital conflict, or reacting to abandonment issues on the part of the parent.

If the situation is one of parents overreacting to more typical clashes with and emotional outbursts by their teen, it can be useful to normalize the current upheaval felt within the family. Parents may not recognize their previously complaint and happy child. Yet adolescence is a rocky and difficult struggle to find one's identity and it almost always necessitates some conflict with parents. It is important for the parents to see this as normal and rejoice in the strengthening of their child's opinions and sense of self. At the same time, parents need to be reminded that it is healthy to retain some control, which can be continually lessened as the individual proves his/her increasing responsibility and judgement. Parents may also need permission to let go of parenting duties and move on to a reevaluation of their own identity and personal goals. This can be an exciting time of discovery for the parents as well, and a chance to reconnect with their spouse.

But what of single parents? Frey (1984) identifies some therapeutic goals in working with the single parent as being: 1) giving encouragement and support for assuming an appropriate parental role, including giving the adolescent both freedom and responsibility, 2) working through feelings of depression and loss of control, 3) targeting use of the peer group for getting emotional needs met, and 4) stress reduction.

CONCLUSION

Parents who have failed to deal with marital, parental, or personal issues often leave an open door for their adolescent child to develop "problem behavior" or illness. These serve to regulate marital conflict or feelings of inadequacy or despair by drawing attention to the problem of the child instead. For instance, a woman may define herself primarily as a mother, rather than as a wife or person, and lack the courage to face a modified self-definition. If she is powerful enough, she can negate the developmental process and paralyze everyone in the family. Some parents may deny that their children are growing up in order to avoid their own fears regarding aging. In this way, by blocking the natural developmental processes and having to deal with the symptoms that emerge within their adolescent as a result, parents can avoid looking at such issues as lack of companionship, sexual difficulties or power struggles within the marital relationship. Or it may be that the prospect of change itself appears so threatening that it cannot be tolerated.

As a counseling professional, it is of the utmost importance to be aware of both the individual's and the family's developmental tasks and to maximize these within the therapy. It may be necessary to work on a marital problem that has initially been presented as a "problem adolescent," and to help this teen take the beginning steps toward separation while working separately with the parents. It is also helpful to keep in mind the parallel focus on identity and self-knowledge for both teen and parent, and to lend encouragement to getting needs met by the appropriate peer group.

We are all aware that adolescence in the best of times is difficult. We, as counselors, can help parents to understand that it is not only wise, but necessary, for them to give their adolescents room to grow apart. We can support these parents in focusing on their own interests, issues, and developmental tasks. They may desire reassurance that adolescents need the freedom to learn from their own experiences and mistakes within expanded limits and guidelines, while at the same time needing understanding and support at home for the difficult choices they face while venturing forth from the family. Change is inevitable. As children and families grow, their respective needs are constantly evolving. And if a family has the flexibility to transform according to its members' needs, the result will be a successful passage both for the family and for the adolescent moving into adulthood.

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Job Placement Rating: A Proxy for Evaluating Effects

by Paul R. Kludt

To what degree do job placements equate with job retention, self-sufficient incomes, and productive membership in communities? These questions were posed to the Jeffco Employment and Training agency by its governing body. Traditionally, only long-term follow-up could provide the answers. Now, one answer is: depending upon the quality of the jobs at placement. The development and implementation of Jeffco's method of rating job placements, as a proxy for long-term follow up, are described in this article. The evaluation results of Jeffco's programs are also included to offer an illustration of how it may have application to other vocational programs.

IMPORTANCE OF LONG RANGE OUTCOMES

Despite the proclaimed value of improving long-term employment, job placement remains a traditional short-term measurement of success for many vocational programs. National legislation such as the Carl Perkins Vocational Act of 1984, stipulates job placement as an objective for vocational education programs in secondary and post-secondary school systems. Rehabilitation programs strive for placing disabled individuals into permanent jobs as advocated by the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1982. The number of job placements is the basis for staffing Job Service Centers across the country. Entered employment rates are the primary factors for evaluating the 568 employment and training agencies funded through the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA, 1982).

The long-term effects of employment and training programs are twofold: to improve the employment of participants, and for society to gain productive workers (Borus, 1979). Any measurement of vocational education success must include the benefits derived by the individual and by society (Quinn & Gonzales, 1979). Earnings and job satisfaction are the two most important goals for the individual as measured by increased income and more time employed (Borus, 1979). A primary economic factor that linked program outcomes to benefits for the individual and for society was the entry wages paid on the jobs (Somers & Wood, 1969). The predominant difference between the poor and non-poor is the instability of their work histories (Gordon, 1972). In one respect, most of the poor simply do not work at paid employment as long as the non-poor do.

Many vocational education and other employment programs lack longitudinal studies to measure future earnings potential; and, therefore, use immediate job placement as an evaluation criterion (Bersnick, 1979). Yet,

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long-term follow-up shows the employment results of occupational training much clearer than do short-term placement outcomes (Fredland, 1980). Nonetheless, evaluations of programs, funded by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, frequently overlooked important comparisons among various job search and training components (Bresnick, 1979).

As with many agencies, these forces had come to bear on Jeffco Employment and Training in its effort to formulate a meaningful program evaluation system. Knowledge of program effects, was deemed important for effective planning. The follow-up being done was short term, and too often neglected as a low priority. Long-term follow-up on all participants was cost prohibited. Responding to these conditions, a quality of employment scale was developed to assess job placements as to their likelihood of impacting the program participant's future employment.

JEFFCO AGENCY SERVICES AND PROGRAM GOALS

The Jeffco agency provides employment and training services to a population of 430,000 mostly urban residents of a large western metropolitan area. Approximately 1,600 economically disadvantaged people are served annually through a mix of programs designed to prepare and place them into employment. Adult participants (22+ years) are typically unemployed, and are all pursuing employment, either via occupational training or through direct job placement. Only about half of the youth have immediate employment as their goal, with the remaining 50 percent wanting to develop their employability for future employment through training or by means of working in subsidized jobs during the summer.

Of those clients desiring immediate employment about 22 percent are youth between the ages of 16 through 21 years. The majority (88%) of the adults are 22-44 years old, with only 12 percent being 45 years or older. Fifty-eight (58) percent of the total enrollments are female. The ethnic breakdown of program participants is: 83% White, 3% Black, 10% Hispanic, 2% Asian, and 1% American Indian. Seventy-nine (79) percent of those enrolled had attained an educational level of high school or higher.

A mix of programs, with the goal of gaining permanent employment, is offered to the clients to meet their diverse employment needs. Occupational training is afforded through either vocational education classes or on-the-job training. Job placement is offered through both a job finding club and individual job search. Economic self-sufficiency was established by Jeffco as the primary goal for its participants, which is much the same as other employment and training agencies (Somers & Wood, 1969). People were to be kept from revolving through dead-end jobs and kept off public assistance. Quality employment was determined to be a pertinent indicator of achieving this goal.

EMPLOYMENT QUALITY SCALE THEORETICAL BASIS

The need for a simple, inexpensive evaluation originated from the agency's planning task to allocate financial resources among four types of employment and training programs. Jeffco's idea of creating a new evaluation method was derived from the concept, "Job Classification by Estimated Benefits" (National Labor Market Information Training Institute, 1980), as presented in a planning evaluation workshop (see appendix for original scale). This evaluation construct postulated that employment placements could be categorized into five levels of quality. The first two levels, Marginal (e.g. seasonal labor) and Stable/low (e.g. food hostess), were classified to be in the *secondary labor market*. The third level of employment was classified as Transitional (e.g. carpenter's helper). It was characterized as having some of the qualities of the secondary job market, but also provided opportunities for transition into the *primary job market*. The higher two levels, Self-Support (e.g. drafter) and Cycle-Breaking (e.g. electrician), were categories of the primary job market. Placement into these two upper levels of employment was believed to have the largest impact on breaking the cycle of poverty. This original scale used wages as the principal factor in classifying jobs into levels of employment.

Expanding upon this evaluation notion, a refined scale was devised for rating the quality of employment. The scale modifications were grounded in the theoretical research about how industries can be segmented into core and periphery categories (Tolbert, 1980). Core industries are monopolies or ologopolies with stable markets, high costs for business entry, higher profit margins, and low employee turnover. Peripheral industries experience the more competitive conditions of changing product markets, low barriers for entry, high worker turnover and lower profits. Studying the working poor suggests consideration should be given to a significant third segment of the economy of underground businesses, such as cash, crafts for labor, bartering, and illegal activities (Bluestone, 1970). Despite its potential influence, this "irregular" portion of the economy was not distinguished by a separate category, largely because insufficient data exists to measure it. Also, many of its enterprising activities are in the peripheral group of industries. Although every industry or business cannot be distinctly classified into these two groupings, empirical support has been provided to substantiate the theory (Tolbert, 1980).

The effect of the core/periphery industry segmentation, and other economic factors, produces a dual labor market where jobs are characterized by being either primary or secondary employment (Piore, 1971). The primary labor market generates jobs with high wages, good working conditions, job security, career path opportunities, equitable treatment and due process for its workers. Contrastingly, secondary jobs are those with a combination of low pay, poor working conditions, job insecurity, unfair management practices, scant opportunities for advancement, and few employee rights.

The program goal of economic self-sufficiency for participants is more easily realized by their securing employment in the primary job market. More job placements in the primary labor market indicate larger positive impacts on future employment outlook and greater benefits to society. Employment and training programs have been demonstrated to produce some mobility of participants from the secondary to the primary job markets (Rosenberg, 1980). These research findings supported the Jeffco's concept of using primary/secondary job market classifications to measure job placements.

RATING SCALE DEVELOPMENT

The original classification scale used job entry wages as its principal criterion for the five levels of employment categories. Earnings has been used elsewhere as a main criterian for program evaluation (Bassi, 1988). Post-

TABLE 1. QUALITY OF EMPLOYMENT SCALE

Levels	Income	Stability	Duration	Entry Requirements	Job Satisfaction	Future Opportunities	Other
1. Marginal	Minimum wage or $580/mo. or less	High Turnover, seasonal	Temporary or part-time	No skills, little experience	No intrinsic job satisfaction	Dead-end job	No employee rights
2. Stable low	Poverty $580-800/mo.	Job available upon right conditions	Steady work available	Usually few entry requirements	Mostly low, but could vary	Very few advancements available	Few employee protections
3. Transitional	Varied $700-1000/mo.	Could vary, but other opportunities are available	Could vary, but skills are transferable	Some education and skills required potentital important	Could vary, but usually some interest stimulated	Key factor: job is step toward advancement	Job includes learning skill of a higher level employment
4. Self-Sustaining	Self supporting $800-1,100/mo.	Job is stable or other similar job available	Average change of permanent employment	Normally requires some experience, education or skills	Average job satisfaction, but could vary considerably	Average change of advancement	Usually a step at which survival is sustained — has employee rights
5. Cycle breaking	Minimum comfort $1100/mo. or higher	Steady work available at same or different employers	Typically permanent work available	Many times requires prior experience or considerable skill or education	More satisfaction than average, but not always the case	Typically a step toward advancement in salary or position	Usually valued by employers and granted employee rights

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program earnings have been demonstrated also to be a durable indicator of success by showing low declines in long-term earnings (Bloom, 1984). The importance of earnings has been further substantiated as a key factor in differentiating jobs among the primary and secondary job markets (Becker, 1978).

Aspects of employment, other than earnings, were found to be important in classifying employment. Job satisfaction and earnings constituted the two most important employment goals for individuals as measured by increased income and more time employed (Borus, 1979). Other important elements in defining the dual labor market are: good working conditions, employment stability, equity, employee rights, etc. (Piore, 1971). "Worker power" as expressed in union work agreements, licensing, tenure, job classifications, and internal job market controls explains much of the difference between the primary and secondary job markets (Kallegerg, 1981). Worker discretion and decision making adds security to employment, but can also present barriers to job mobility (Tolbert, 1982). Occupational prestige, though intangible, was used as a key element in classifying jobs in the secondary labor market (Becker, 1978). As with other attempts to classify jobs into primary and secondary segments, Osterman (1975) thought his use of the 1967 Survey of Economic Opportunity was somewhat subjective.

Based on this research, Jeffco added six factors to earnings, which collectively were believed to have more predictive power for future job success than did entry level earnings alone. Using the findings, a quality of employment scale was developed as illustrated in Table 1. The first two levels of employment, marginal and stable/low, were classified as being in the secondary labor market. The other three levels, transitional, a self-sustaining and cycle-breaking, were considered to be in the primary labor market, and were defined as the optimal criterion of program quality.

EVALUATION METHODOLOGY

Program evaluation, most useful to managers, focuses on both the short and long term effects of various programs; and, in particular, identifies variations among different population groups (Lawther, 1984). Likewise, Jeffco first wanted to know how effective each of the four programs was in terms of the quality of placement. Secondly, the improvements in quality of employment participants experience through the programs was to be examined.

The quality of employment scale was used to numerically rate pre- and post-program employment for representative samples of participants in each of six years through 1985. The samples (see Table 2.) were drawn randomly from each of the four programs to be comparatively evaluated. A total of 1,034 cases were studied over the six years to provide an informal test on the stability of the findings. The ratings were to: 1) measure the quality of jobs generated by each program, and 2) determine the gain (or loss) in employment levels of each of the four comparison components.

The numerical ratings of pre-enrollment work histories and jobs at placement required some basic knowledge about the labor market. Some of the ratings were subjective in that the employment experiences for rating

TABLE 2. PRE-POST PROGRAM EMPLOYMENT LEVEL COMPARISONS FOR JEFFCO

JOB TRAINING PROGRAMS		LEVELS OF EMPLOYMENT		
	Sample Size	Pre-Enrollment Levels	Job Placement Levels	Average Gain
Classroom Training				
1979 1st Sample	N=34	2.44	3.54	+1.10*
1980 2nd Sample	N=33	1.44	2.89	+1.45*
1981 3rd Sample	N=53	1.73	3.43	+1.70*
1982 4th Sample	N=50	1.77	3.48	+1.71*
1983 5th Sample	N=50	1.56	2.68	+1.12*
1984 6th Sample	N=40	1.64	2.78	+1.14*
1985 7th Sample	N=50	2.08	3.21	+1.13*
Total Samples	N=310	1.83	3.16	+1.35*
On-the-Job Training				
1979 1st Sample	N=41	2.53	3.68	+1.15*
1980 2nd Sample	N=14	1.60	3.00	+1.40*
1981 3rd Sample	N=50	2.04	3.28	+1.24*
1982 4th Sample	N=45	1.77	3.11	+1.29*
1983 5th Sample	N=50	2.11	3.32	+1.21*
1984 6th Sample	N=30	1.73	3.08	+1.35*
1985 7th Sample	N=39	1.89	3.08	+1.19*
Total Samples	N=269	2.00	3.25	+1.25*

JOB SEARCH PROGRAMS		LEVELS OF EMPLOYMENT		
	Sample Size	Enrollment Levels	Job Placement Levels	Average Gain
Job Finding Club				
1982 4tht Sample	N=35	1.70	2.43	+0.74*
1983 5th Sample	N=50	2.67	3.44	+0.77*
1984 6th Sample	N=40	1.94	2.78	+0.85*
1985 7th Sample	N=50	2.30	2.91	+0.61*
Total Samples	N=175	2.22	2.96	+0.73*
Individual Job Search				
1979 1st Sample	N=45	2.54	3.43	+0.87*
1980 2nd Sample	N=50	2.01	2.34	+0.35*
1981 3rd Sample	N=50	1.97	2.53	+0.56*
1982 4th Sample	N=15	1.97	2.53	+0.56*
1983 5th Sample	N=40	1.76	2.14	+0.38*
1984 6th Sample	N=30	1.70	2.52	+0.82*
1985 7th Sample	N=50	2.00	3.05	+1.05*
Total Samples	N=280	2.00	2.70	+0.71*

*Statistically significant at 0.05 level or higher based on T test of paired ratings had a blend of job quality factors. The reliability of the ratings among raters, as tested in three samples, showed the ratings to be the same in 94% of the cases.

EVALUATION RESULTS: AN ILLUSTRATED EXAMPLE

The results of each program sample for the six years are presented in Table 2. Each number in columns two (Enrollment Levels) and three (Job Placement Levels) are the average ratings of employment for participants of the four programs prior to enrollment and at termination into jobs. The fourth column (Average Gain) shows the gains in employment levels achieved by the clients as a result of their participating in the respective training programs.

The method used for determining statistical significance between the pre- and post-enrollment levels of employment for all samples, and for the sum of the samples, was the two-tailed T-test. In each sample group the numerical rating of pre-enrollment employment was paired with that of the job placement level to calculate whether the differences (gains in employment levels) were significant at the 95% level of confidence or higher. All of the differences, excepting Sample 1985 for Individual Job Search, exceeded the probabilities of chance beyond this level.

This evaluation method concluded that programs consistently placed most individuals into better employment situations than they had occupied in the six months prior to their enrollments. The largest gains were generated by the two skill training programs, with less increases in the job search programs. The average employment levels of job skill programs were at 3+, indicating the cycle of poverty may have been broken. To Jeffco's governing body the results gave a qualified yes to their questions, for some programs.

VALIDATION THROUGH POST-PROGRAM EARNINGS

Jeffco wanted to know whether the ratings of job placements really measured different levels of future employment. A long-term follow up of post-program earnings was completed to validate its forecasting capability. By use of wage reports from employers the earnins of 236 employed participants were tracked for one year. The sample of participants was all of those placed into employment, for which earning data was available, during program years 1983 and 1984. The results of the post-program earnings study, as summarized in Table 3, support the quality of employment predictions at job placement.

Table 3. Earning Validation Results

Employment Level Ratings	Sample Size	Average Quarterly Earnings
1 - Marginal	N=31	$270.34*
2 - Stable	N=69	377.44*
3 - Transitional	N=44	490.93*
4 - Self-sustaining	N=65	539.15*
5 - Cycle breaking	N=27	826.75*

*Significant difference, $p < 0.01$

Each of the five employment levels correctly predicted progressive increases in earnings. The differences between each of the quarterly earning averages were greater than the variations among the sample cases, as tested by a one-way analysis of variance, using the F-test of significance.

CONCLUSIONS AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Rating the quality of job placements has been demonstrated to be a parsimonious method of estimating the long term impacts for individuals and for society. It may be used as a proxy for following up on program terminees. The low cost can be a welcome relief to budgets that cannot afford lengthy follow-up systems. It can add an important dimension to comparing programs on their potential to positively effect the future employment of their participants.

A computerized index could be developed whereby ratings would uniformly be assigned to jobs as described in specified terms. By providing a set of factors to chose from (e.g. earnings, duration, entry requirements, etc.) a standardized rating would be assigned; thereby, reducing subjectivity in the ratings. This more objective method would permit the job placement results of different programs to be more accurately compared. Lastly, employment qualities, other than earnings, could be validated through additional follow-up studies.

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JOB CLASSIFICATIONS BY ESTIMATED BENEFITS

(1) Cycle breaking: Annual income 25% above the self-support threshold level for 80% of the participant population. Self-support income levels to vary with family size.

(2) Self-support threshold: Break even or above 80% of the population.

(3) Transitional: Clear evidence that the job leads to the self-support threshold or above. The wage is from the federal minimum to the self-support threshold.

(4) Stable low income: Little potential for advancement, but of long duration. The wage is from the federal minimum to the self-support threshold.

(5) Marginal: Temporary, seasonal or at low pay.

Twirplings: The Art of Reframing

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by Cynthia L. Baldwin

It is amazing the extremes to which counselors will go for reframing the experiences of clients. In family therapy, for instance, the tests offer assurance that it is essential to be able to understand a family's world view well enough to take a negatively-loaded word or phrase and name it differently so the family hears it differently. For example, the "anorectic daughter" may be de-escalated from the disease orientation to merely a "kid who won't eat much" (Minuchin, 1981). A child who pulls a tantrum everytime mom and dad start to argue may be relabeled as the "sacrificial lamb" who is willing to do anything to distract them from fighting. And the child whiner who has made it impossible for mom to leave him may be providing reassurance of her worth as a mother.

But relabeling is just the start. When relabeling is truly successful, it reframes the family's perception of itself and opens up the door to change. It is an art form to be able to collect the contorted pieces of a family's perception and integrate them into a whole and healthier model.

But how does an aspiring professional learn to make these insightful leaps into linguistic loquaciousness? Well, I practice. I work best on my students because they are least likely to disagree with the accuracy of my relabeling. Let me offer some examples. I had a graduate assistant once who operated at a level barely above comatose. But did I say, "Get the lead out Bud, and move it!?" Oh no. I just danced around about his "laid back" style and did most of the work myself. Another time a student reassured me that she would have been ready for her presentation except for the fact that she had lost her calendar and forgot that it was her turn to discuss theories. Instead of thinking of her as feckless, I relabeled her experience as luckless and rearranged the schedule to let her have another try.

Yet, somehow my relabeling with my students was leaving me feeling angry. It was as if in my attempts at skilled relabeling I was leaving out the clear messages of responsibility and consequence — both mine and theirs. I was discovering that relabeling is not an excuse — not letting someone off the hook, but keeping the barbs out of the way of true and responsible dialogue.

A conversation with my nine-year-old son cornered me into facing my own role in responsible reframing. Jonathan has a common kid aversion to hot soapy water (not to be confused with mud puddles and melting snow), and was trying to worm his way out of his bath. He pulled what any parent in her right mind would recognize as the bait-and-switch move. "You want me to have exercise, don't you? And Billy can only play until dinner — then

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I'll take my bath." Well, of course by after dinner he had received an invitation to the basketball game and didn't return until after his regular bed time. In the morning, the excuse was he'd just get dirty playing outside, so why not wait until evening?

Well, my first relabeling that he wasn't manipulative but a normal energetic kid gave way to a reframe that took into account my own frustration. He was a grand master at bathroom chess and I was being rooked! I sat him down, cleared my throat and my mind and talked straight about expectations and consequences. He looked at me intently while I mapped out the rules of the game, then tilted his head and said, "I know it must be hard to be the mother of a twirpling." He did it! He relabeled my position from one of a clear and negatively loaded behavior problem to a softer, more impish perspective on childish behavior. What's more, he brought humor back to my eyes and tickling back to my fingers. We negotiated a new set of rules attached to his allowance that got us both out of the games of win-lose. And it was even fun!

So I guess for those wanting to learn the *art* of relabeling and reframing, they'd better study the great teacher. To the list of masters in the field like Milton Erickson, (1976) Haley (1976) and Minuchin, (1981), I would suggest you add that oft forgotten font of wisdom: Your own little twirplings. Like Yoda in *Star Wars*, they may be small and goofy looking, but they have the force with them, and as counselors a technique is nothing without the spirit to move it. May the force be with you as you study the art of reframing, and merry twirplings to you!

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Counselor Licensure: The Colorado Effort

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by Don T. Basse

Counselor licensure has now surpassed the half-way point, with most of the remaining states seeking or making plans to pursue licensure for their states. The success of the states achieving licensure in promoting recognition of the counseling profession, has led to the success of states promoting their licensure efforts. Gerstein, Backels, Hutchinson and Tanguy documented the trend of other allied professions in cooperating in the licensure effort. In the January 14, 1988 Guidepost, Hayes reported from the Gerstin, et al. group that ". . . in 1987, four of the six states that passed legislation also regulated other professions along with counseling.

The licensure bill now making its way through the Colorado legislature is such a cooperative effort. The bill proposes licensure for psychologists, Social Workers, Marriage and Family Therapists and Licensed Professional Counselors. Each of these four professional groups would have their own licensing board and separate set of licensure guidelines. The bill enters the legislative process with the backing of all four groups, thus presenting a unified front of mental health professions toward the licensure effort. Some unique features of the bill as prepared by Dr. Larry Hill, the bills current "shephard" in the legislative process, are:

1) The bill repeals current legislation regarding licensure of psychologists and social workers. It then establishes five separate boards. Four boards serve independently as the licensing agencies for social work, for psychology, for marriage and family therapists, and for professional counselors. We have our own separate and distinct board! The fifth board is a grievance board and serves as the disciplinary agency in mental health practice. All groups are represented on the grievance board.

2) The bill specifically states that counselors are psychotherapists and that psychotherapy means the "treatment, diagnosis, testing, assessment, or counseling in a professional relationship, to assist individuals or groups to alleviate mental disorders, understand unconscious or conscious motivation, resolve emotional, relationship, or attitudinal conflicts, or modify behaviors which interfere with effective emotional, social, or intellectual functioning."

3) The state board of licensed professional counselor examiners will consist of seven members. Two will be laypersons and five will be professional counselors, all serving staggered terms. Professionals must have been in practice for five years and must become licensed within one year of appointment to the board.

4) Licensure requirements are parallel for all groups with the exception that psychologists do not license at the master's level. Applicants must hold

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a master's or doctoral degree in professional counseling from an accredited school or college offering a full time graduate course of study approved by appropriate national organizations accrediting professional counselor education programs or a substantial equivalent program approved by the board. A practicum or internship is required, along with two years of post-master's practice or one year of postdoctoral practice in applied psychotherapy under supervision approved by the board and the passing of an examination that will demonstrate special knowledge and skill in applied psychotherapy. The first examination will be given ASAP July 1, 1988, which means around January, 1989.

5) There is no provision for "grand-parenting" or for continuing education. All professions are enabled to establish professional corporations and all are extended privileged communication. Not only licensees but every psychotherapist and school psychologist must provide each client with a complete professional disclosure statement.

6) This bill establishes for professional counselors full parity with the other mental health professions in the domain of licensure regulation. It also establishes Colorado as the leader nationally in the area of professional regulation.

The Colorado bill is quite different from other counselor licensure bills in its proposal to license psychotherapist and not counselor. The bill's efforts in this course is in large part due to the political climate in Colorado, in which the legislatures view protection of the public receiving mental health service as their primary concern, and not a "protectionist" move for any particular group. In Colorado, psychotherapy is an unregulated profession and is prolific. This bill would regulate who may provide psychotherapy and these providers would be from the four groups covered under the licensure bill.

Perhaps the most unique feature of the bill is the grievance board. Each of the four licensed groups would have the mechanisms to develop a grievance board to deal with accusations of mis- or malpractice of its members. The board also will be empowered to act against a non-licensed person practicing psychotherapy. This feature of the Colorado Bill will further strengthen the integrity of all mental health professionals by minimizing the ability of those untrained persons providing sub-standard, unsafe and possibly damaging "psychotherapy" to the public.

The Colorado bill, like all other state counselor licensure bills, is the result of years of hard work. The Mental Health Branch of the Colorado Association of Counseling and Development have been the major names and money raisers for this effort. All groups in CACD have been supportive and as the bill draws closer to becoming a reality, are providing even more support.

BOOK REVIEW

The Closing of the American Mind

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by Dr. Allan Bloom

Published by Simon and Schuster, N.Y., N.Y.

Reviewed by: Maureen E. Pernick

Of the many reviews I have read of Dr. Alian Bloom's *The Closing of the American Mind*, I partially and grudgingly agree with one that states "this book lights a few fires." Bloom makes a valid point by citing the necessity for the humanities in the college curriculum. I agree with him in that we can learn about the future by studying and understanding the past. Surprised with observations (and outrage) that few schools require "core" courses and "classics" such as Aristotle, Plato, Hobbes, and Locke, I find Bloom's arguments buried under the sea of his own piousness. He appears to have tunnel-vision when citing the philosophers that are "important" and sees only those with Western origins as noteworthy.

Bloom fails to accept contemporary America is a rapidly changing environment and this short-sightedness negates the mission he is trying to accomplish: to educate America that universities are doing a great disservice to its students by not teaching the Great Books. Written by an academician for academicians, and on the best-seller list for weeks, I question if those who are buying or reading it are gaining anything. While taking a firm stand denouncing relativism and its overabundance in the university setting, he expects and challenges universities to "stand for something." Actually, it sounds as if he advocates the reinstatement of *in loco parentis* with the universities teaching morals and values to the students. Universities turn out scores of people who can only think in shades of grey unable to demonstrate "right" and "wrong", he sees students as unable to make firm commitments. Optimistically, Bloom sees "today's student" as "more honest in this generation than in previous." Yet, he observes that "stereotyping has disappeared" and that "these kids just do not have prejudices against anyone." If this is the sample of students he has researched, I suggest he has a skewed view.

Parents, not left unscathed by Bloom's rhetoric, "have nothing to give to their children in the way of a vision of the world, of high models of action, or profound sense of connection with others." I presume he thinks that if parents cannot recite from Plato's *Republic* and Dante's *Inferno*, they are incapable of instilling values in their children. I challenge Bloom's narrow

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frame of mind which attempts to educate what he sees as a closed mind. While recommending this controversial book — if only to "light a few fires," it is worth considering that when Bloom writes of "the closed mind" I wonder if it is not autobiographical.

BOOK REVIEW

Transformations: Growth and Change in Adult Life

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by Roger Gould, M.D.

Published by Simon and Schuster, 1978

Reviewed by Brian Keintz

Transformations is a profound and enlightening book which presents the challenges of growth in the adult life. Gould does an excellent job of describing the predictable crises of adult life and offering explanations of how those crises occur.

He ascertains that conflicts experienced by adults are age-related and are the product of static personal growth. The themes of the conflicts experienced during specific time frames are: in our 20's, leaving parents and assuming new roles; in our 30's, feeling locked-in to responsibilities; in our 40's, feeling urgency to accept the reality of death; and beyond midlife, overcoming conflicts and striving for inner peace. *Transformations* explores each theme and examines the beliefs established in childhood related to each time frame.

The book follows two tracts common to adult life which are often catalysts of conflict and growth. They are marriage and work. Both offer challenges for the adult to overcome in achieving fulfillment of life goals.

The theme of *Transformations* is growth away from childhood consciousness. Gould sees growth as a continuous process sped up or slowed down but never stopped. Each step is characterized by a period of emotional turmoil and discomfort but the result is greater understanding and movement toward adult fulfillment.

The book provides excellent insight into the conflicts of marriage tied to differences in growth between partners. Often, resentment causes conflict leading to separation or divorce. Gould offers explanations of the source of marital conflict and provides solutions to overcoming those difficulties.

Unfortunately, the book seems to focus on married individuals and little time is given to the development of single adults. Certainly, there must be some fundamental differences between the development of married and single adults. *Transformations* also makes a feeble attempt to explain differences across socio-economic classes and does not mention differences among cultural minorities.

Gould's writing style makes the reader feel the conflicts being described as one can identify with the crises and inner thoughts of the people profiled in each age group. The book gives the reader insight into past, present, and

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future developmental challenges. Gould's writing from personal experience gives the book additional credibility.

Transformations provides a great opportunity to sense adult development from a personal viewpoint. This book gives any reader a look at themself from a unique and personal perspective. Gould has provided more than an interesting compilation of real-life experiences from real people. *Transformations* is a mirror of the reader's past growth and a window to their future development.

BOOK REVIEW

College: The Undergraduate Experience in America

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by Ernest L. Boyer

Published by Harper and Row, N.Y., N.Y.

Reviewed by: Calla C. Lapham

As author of *High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America* (Boyer, 1983), it is not surprising that Dr. Ernest Boyer continues his work with the book *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America.* Boyer is probably one of only a few qualified to write this book considering his credentials. These include academic Dean, University teacher, Head of the Commission to Improve the Education of Teachers for the Western College Association, Director of the Center for Coordinated Education at University of California at Santa Barbara, and Chancellor of the State University of New York since 1970. His credentials provide the reader with a careful analysis of the undergraduate years as seen by administrators, faculty, students and parents.

The book highlights a three year analysis from visits to thirty four-year institutions throughout the United States. Dr. Boyer sees the need to involve colleges in the debate over the goals and purposes of education due to the emergence of divisions on campus, conflicting priorities, and competing interests. Throughout the book, Dr. Boyer offers the theme of individuality and community as a solution to the much criticized four-year undergraduate experience. Individuality refers to the individual preferences of a student and community refers to the need to develop a civic and socially responsible student.

College, divided into seven parts, each part one of eight concerns; except for part six which combines the governance and evaluation of a college. Part One discusses the discontinuity between high school and college. Boyer views the primary solution as a two party responsibility between the school and the student. It is important that the school truly market its assets and students look beyond the green grass, student union and athletic teams to the quality of teachers, orientation, library, retention rate and academic programs. The confusion over goals, specifically striking a balance between student preferences and institutional goals, is seen as the second area needing clarification. Here, Boyer strongly recommends the theme of individuality and community as guidelines. Part three describes the conflict between "careerism" and liberal arts within a college. With foresight, the general education courses and the enriched major should be carefully intertwined

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to create a balance between "careerism" and liberal arts. Part four addresses the tension among faculty over the role of researcher versus teacher. Boyer calls for redefining professional competence in terms other than research and publication. This section also confronts the issue of passive learning since the lecture method is used most by professors. Boyer advocates active learning, evaluating teachers and providing them with means to improve their skills. Part five suggests the need for colleges to bridge the gap between academic and social life by providing educational programs in the residence halls and cultural activities. The quality of student life, he suggests, has a direct effect upon the undergraduate experience. Part six argues that governance on most campuses is ineffective because of breakdown communication between faculty and department heads and the lack of support for student government. Colleges guided by a common purpose that crosses departments and divisions compliments the belief that "integrity is the key to governance." Part seven suggests that "the sum of the parts does not equal the coherent whole" on most campuses and the evaluation process should focus on the overall purpose of the undergraduate experience so that the institution and student are inclusive in that process. Lastly Boyer discusses the gap between college and the world, the importance of moving the student from competence to commitment, giving high priority to career placement offices and informing the students about global issues. Boyer feels it is vital that students begin to view themselves as part of a larger community.

College: The Undergraduate Experience in America offers an insightful view of the undergraduate years, the problems surrounding the college community and possible solutions. I would recommend *College* as a text to inspire students in a higher education graduate program; and it will remind professionals why they entered the field of higher education. While *College* does not incorporate the community and junior colleges, the vocational schools and the non-traditional student into its study, I feel it is a reference book that can be utilized by all of post secondary education.

BOOK REVIEW

Inside America

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by Louis Harris

Published by Vintage Books

Reviewed by Ross Papish

Louis Harris and Associates have brought forth a powerful source of polled information. *Inside America*, a compilation of nationally recognized polls, reports in detail popular opinion in American in the 1980's. Clear from the onset this work does not prove any preset assumptions about American life but paints a picture of what society thinks. Harris examines issues in our society from "family life, personal and social problems, reactions to emerging crises and trends, the latest in political developments, and perspectives on war and peace, and the economy and values." A somewhat systematic approach presents the information, although there is much overlap between many topics. The information is broken into three chapters entitled home and family, the community, and the nation and the world.

Harris' information paints less a picture of the American family and home than an expose of the individual. Topics such as stress, work, God, happiness, parenting, sleep, and sex education are but a few of the areas that are examined. The typical American is shown to be one of a stereotyped "me" generation. High competition, high stress, importance of appearances, and feelings of alienation are a few of the characteristics typifying the 1980's American. Information from other topics show signs of movement away from this societal representation is supplemented by Harris' observation that this characterization is a "skin-deep" representation of the American public. His belief that there is a tendency toward more humanistic concerns is not strongly supported in this chapter.

The American community is examined through social issues such as the yuppy generation, AIDS, discrimination, business, and education. In contrast to the home and family, the community is revealed to be a breeding ground of social awareness. Support by the majority of the public for sex education in schools, birth control and abortion, equal rights, affirmative action, and euthanasia are signs that our culture is becoming more allocentric; social welfare and individual rights are outweighing moral concerns. Although ties between the Reagan administration and the religious right are evident, polls indicate that the American public would not support conservative legislation. Skepticism toward national "institutions" (i.e., education, business, government) demonstrates that the public is demanding that "contemporary

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problems be solved by new and radical approaches" that satisfy the current moderate trend. The information revealed in this chapter breaks through the "skin" of the individual and exposes a movement toward an altruistic society in the 1990's.

Concerns for the nation and the world presents few surprises. The American public wants less defense spending, arms reduction, concern for the consumer, increased action against apartheid and support for Corey Aquino (among other world issues). The national public sees the need for the U.S. to be a competitive world market again, to take impartial stands on some international conflicts and to bring forth leaders that can be effective and "trusted". Harris presents information that tells of an American public that wants the best of all worlds. Decreased inflation and world peace are but two concerns that typify the developing "national conscience" of which Harris speaks.

In all, *Inside America* is a statistical tidal wave of information successful in exposing America as a confusing and complex society of diverse people with diverse concerns. While there is much evidence of the existing "me" generation of the 1980's, there is also a clear emergence of a new moderate (political) standpoint in America that is demanding relief for the poverty stricken, homeless, and malnutritioned of the world. Though Harris does not set out to prove a particular point, he does reveal that education is one of the keys to America's contemporary concerns. Creation of a new workforce, new leaders and new strategies to address social concerns will come out of education to meet these new concerns.

BOOK REVIEW

Habits of the Heart: Individualism and Commitment in American Life

by Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, and Tipton

Published by Harper and Row, 1985

Reviewed by: R. Gary Hartz

Alexis de Tocqueville, in *Democracy in America* (Knopf, inc., 1945), warned that individualism has the potential to isolate Americans from each other, undermining the conditions which make freedom possible. This danger sparked Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, and Tipton to create *Habits of the Heart*, a brilliant and readable analysis of American individualism and commitment. The authors feel that it is crucial that the roots of American individualism are understood if freedom is to be ensured.

The book rests on the premise that society lacks the ability to articulate the richness of its commitments. Indeed, the goal of the authors is to help transform private moral anxieties into public discourse. They perceive a stagnation in one's ability to discuss moral issues, and see this as a prime reason for the lack of comfort and understanding held toward others. Ideally, people could develop a "deeper language," allowing them to become more intimate about their common moral concerns, a necessity if we are to keep our freedom.

Habits of the Heart is a creative synthesis of the authors' individual studies. Studies ranged from the role of love and marriage in our lives, to therapists', psychologists', and psychiatrists' views on the need for counseling, to one's reasons for activity or lack thereof in volunteer and political activist organizations.

Chapters one and two serve as in introduction. The first analyzes the lives of four Americans, proud of their individualism, but unable to articulate commitments to or definitions of success, freedom, or justice. Chapter two shows how forms of American individualism are deeply rooted in our country's history.

Next, four chapters on private life analyze the process of gaining one's identity, the role of love and marriage, the inability to reach out for help, and the rate at which we turn to professional therapy. The authors feel that our need to preserve our individuality strongly influences the ways in which we choose to divide time between public and private life, and that without this high of a need, the ways in which we see autonomy, counseling, marriage, and other private entities would be drastically different.

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From here, the authors look at public life and why people get involved in society, respond to citizenship, and comment on religion as a major form of expression in public life. The major conclusion here is that there is a predisposition in American middle-class society, in both social situations and in our everyday vocabularies, to look for public and not private sources of meaning.

While most of the book delves into American individualism, the final chapter looks at improvements to be made. The authors acknowledge that the political system contains much power, and stress the significance of the individual's power to visualize improvements and change consciousness levels, opinions, and culture in general.

Seeing change as depending on the individual, the authors recommend that we utilize a developing intellectual mentality - an ability to look beyond boundaries such as those between the disciplines to see problems and issues from a more holistic perspective. Reduction of boundaries, they feel, will help us to recognize common traditions. Since traditions emphasize the many ways in which we are connected with and interdependent upon each other, individuals might then see the need for increased activity in the public realm.

Habits of the Heart paints a realistic picture of American society and the extent to which we value our individualism. If Tocqueville was correct about the potential detriments of individualism, this is one of the most significant books of our time.

"The Supervision Manual for Field-Based Counseling Experiences"

published by the

Colorado Association for Counselor Education and Supervision

The manual is an "all-inclusive" document providing guidelines for guidance and counseling practica, internships and externships. Areas covered are:

1) Making the Site Contact,
2) Responsibilities of the College Supervisor,
3) Responsibilities of the On-site Supervisor,
4) Responsibilities of the Student,
5) Evaluation of the Student, and
6) a Resource Section.

Additionally, the manual contains a section providing a listing of some of the field-based sites and supervisors.

Copies may be purchased for $3.50 by writing:

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The Colorado Association for Counseling and Development invites articles for publication in its journal *Awareness*. The deadline for submission of articles is February 1 of each year. Articles should be sent to:

Rich Feller, Associate Professor
Counseling and Career Development
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It is important that the journal represent all divisions of CACD and members are encouraged to submit articles about their work, research, and thought-provoking challenges to the profession.

In addition, photos are needed for the journal cover for each issue. Please send any photos which you believe would be appropriate. Although no honorarium can be paid, proper credit will be given to each photographer whose work is published.

Typing and Other Requirements

1. Send the original manuscript and two clear copies. The original should be typed on 8½ x 11 nontranslucent white bond. Do not use onionskin or erasable bond.
2. Attach a cover page which provides:
   - title of the article
   - name of the author(s)
   - author's position and place of employment
   - author's address and phone number(s)
3. Style and format should follow the 1988 edition of the *American Psychological Association Publication Manual.*
4. Include an abstract, not to exceed 50 words.
5. Use non-sexist language throughout.
6. Never submit a manuscript which is under consideration by another publication.

Upon publication, each author will receive two personal copies of the journal.

Note: Authors bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures.

The Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development
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Awareness

Spring 1989

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The Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development

Awareness

Spring 1989
Volume 17

Rich Feller, Editor

Associate Professor
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Photo courtesy of Teresa Mealey

From the Editor's Desk

An editor grows very close to one's journal over time. Illusions that it's the first piece of mail read by members become commonplace. After all, it takes some tending to get this from my "Mac" screen to the top of some 1200 mailboxes.

Fortunately, the annual publication arrives as does spring. And with it comes growth. The kids on the corner seem three inches taller and fifteen pounds lighter now that they have peeled their down filled fashions. We note gardens showing signs of renewal, yet standing up from planting seeds gets a little tougher each year. In a way that's how I see publication of the *Journal*. About this time of year I get a little tired until I remind myself what counselors do. It's that planting of seeds in people that causes me to feel that a difference is made.

Let's hope that the considerable efforts of this edition's authors and editorial board members are seen in much the same way. I've got a springtime feeling that their work will again please you.

In reviewing this edition's features let me highlight the addition of Carol Hacker, Director of Employee Assistance Programs, Jefferson County Schools, to the Editorial Board. Everyone who has shared the joy of working with Carol knows what a thorough job she does. Her insight to the issues and exceptional editing ability add considerable strength to the *Journal*. Her special knowledge of mental health counseling provides an additional anchor to your Board.

This edition may have been one of the most challenging, as many more manuscripts were received than could be published. I hope you also acknowledge the wide range of topics representing almost every division. The CACD also pays tribute to Carl Rogers and Virginia Satir, two great gardeners of our souls. As you review this issue and savor the variety, I hope you'll send along your feedback and find an idea or three that allows you to nurture a few seeds in the human garden. Carl Rogers and Virginia Satir would take great pleasure in that. Enjoy!

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Articles are *accepted until February 1* and the *Journal* is published annually each spring.

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A Loving Tribute To Virginia Satir: 1916-1988

by Janet Trever

> *"Few, if any therapist, have so personally touched the lives of so many countless people in one's lifetime, as did Virginia. What was that magic that happened when she shook your hand, looked directly into your eyes, and smiled warmly as she leaned forward to greet you in her own inimitable way? Why did we feel she had known us all our lives, though we had just met? Why did we get that feeling that she understood us better than most, and accpeted us so completely with all our strengths and weaknesses? I believe that one of Virginia's greatest abilities was that of instantly connecting to the humanness in us all. It was that very humanness which she so respected, so admired, and so beautifully nurtured in others, that made her stand out as one of the world's most gifted helpers. Indeed, she referred to her teaching as 'training to be more fully human.' "*[1]

Virginia described herself as a cross between Christopher Columbus, Johnny Appleseed, Paul Revere, and an air traffic controller. She had a genius for going beyond traditional approaches in therapy and spontaneously developing new vehicles of change: family mapping, family reconstruction, sculpting. Her idea of seeing families together rather than separately was a departure from the accepted norm; it was a risk she undertook while working as a young therapist in Chicago. She broke with conventional rules when they blocked the avenues for personal growth. She eventually came to say, "Anyone who does therapy without an awareness of systems is like a geneticist who ignores the existence of D.N.A."

Born in Neillsville, Wisconsin, in 1916, Virginia worked as a teacher and school principal, therapist for residential treatment centers, and instructor for the Illinois State Psychiatric Institute before she began her private practice. She went on to be a co-founder of the Mental Research Institute (MRI) in California, the first Director of Training at Esalen Institute at Big Sur, President of the Association of Humanistic Pyschology, one of the major contributors to the "Evolution of Psychotherapy" Conference in Phoenix in 1985 (a *Time* magazine quote at that time . . . "She can fill any auditorium in the country."), and was selected by the prestigious National Academy of Practice as one of two members chosen to advise the Congress of the U.S. on health concerns. She was chosen to be a member of the International Council of Elders in 1986, a society developed by recipients of the Nobel Peace Prize. She was elected President of the First Family Therapy Symposium in Prague, Czechoslovakia,

---

Janet Trever was selected for membership in the Avanta Network in 1981 and is currently a Career Counselor and adjunct faculty member of the School of Occupational and Educational Studies at Colorado State University.

in 1987, as well as appointed to the California Commission to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility. As one of her final projects, Virginia spent a month in the Soviet Union teaching at the University of Moscow and appearing on their national television.

Her books include *The New Peoplemaking, Conjoint Family Therapy, Self Esteem, Making Contact,* and *Your Many Faces.* She co-authored *The Use of Self in Therapy* and *Satir Step By Step* with Michele Baldwin. She has produced several posters and a teaching video tape series. Virginia devoted much of her energy in the last few years toward world peace and to establishing a structure for her work to be continued. She began her Avanta Network for trainers in 1977, her International Training Institute in 1981. Her annual month-long process communities take place in Crested Butte, Colorado: a place she dearly loved and where she chose to have her ashes placed after the memorial service. The Avanta Network trainers from around the world will continue her family camps, process communities, international seminars, and annual Tiyospaye Seminar (Lakota Sioux word for "extended family") in Rapid City, South Dakota. For further information on any of these programs contact the Avanta Network, 139 Forest Avenue, Palo Alto, CA 94301, (415) 327-1424.

Virginia's folksy style of annecdotes and story-telling breathed fresh air into the corridors of technical jargon and clinical procedures. It seems fitting to include a few stories about her along with the lists of accolades. I was privileged to know Virginia for the past 11 years, and she has left me with a rich collection of tales I love to recount from times spent with her as teacher, mentor, role model, change agent, and friend . . . .

In the midst of a counseling theories course in my masters degree program I had occasion to be with Virginia at a five day seminar in Colorado and to drive with her to dinner in Estes Park. I climbed in the backseat joyfully and recognized the golden opportunity for a head start on my upcoming position paper. "What is the original basis of your theories and techniques? The Freudian psychoanalytic approach you originally trained in, Adlerian Psychology, Jungian?" Virginia laughed and replied, "I always loved plays; I started creating them when I was three years old." Then she talked of the different plays she loved and ones she remembered writing as a child. And that was my answer: not what I expected for my textbook answer, yet richer than I could have dreamed as she offered me a look at how her mind worked and how she perceived patterns in the world of human behavior.

When I first met Virginia in 1978, we were at an Air Force Base in the Philippines where I had been living for the past year and she had been flown in as a consultant to the large hospital facility. At the conclusion of the sessions I was invited to accompany Virginia and the wife of the Mental Health Officer going shopping "off base" in nearby Angeles City. I never like to bargain with the local shopkeepers and sometimes avoided shopping rather than have to contend with it. At one shop she picked out many items without haggling, despite the other wife's protestations of the unfair prices. As the Filipino man wrote up the purchases he looked at her with a big smile and began to shower her with many "gifts" from the shelves. Virginia looked over and beamed at us as if to say, "See, I know people."

A few weeks before Virginia's arrival in Tucson, Arizona, for a conference, the Avanta office called me to request that I contact a woman living in Tucson and arrange for a time for her to see Virginia during her visit. I called and learned to my amazement that the woman had been a teenage run-a-way client of Virginia's *50 years before* in Chicago, and she had recently seen national publicity on Virginia in the papers and had called the Avanta office to reconnect.

I made the arrangements, and with much excitement drove Virginia over to her home one afternoon. The woman, her husband, and her teenage daughter greeted us at the front door, and we walked into a living room with a picture of Virginia on the coffee table. We had a wonderful afternoon together and I marveled at the accountability factor of 50 years: to have these women meet again in such different circumstances in their lives, yet to pick up their mutual admiration immediately. Could it be that we may all have clients looking us up after 50 years to report back on their lives and satisfaction?

Virginia was a gifted, charismatic teacher and leader, and she provided us a legacy of programs, organizations, and "famous firsts"; but most importantly she was genuine, the real McCoy, and she offered hope and new possibilities to everyone she encountered. In the last few weeks of her life she continued to model her beliefs and the passion she felt for life. The last message she sent to us speaks for itself:

Sunday, September 5, 1988 4:40 p.m.

To all my friends, colleagues and family,

I send you love. Please support me in my passage to a new life.

I have no other way to thank you than this.

You have played a significant part in my development of loving.

As a result, my life has been rich and full so I leave feeling very grateful.

Virginia

---

[1] Excerpt from Marilyn Peers' speech (President of Avanta Training Network) at Virginia Satir's Memorial Service, Menlo Park Civic Center, CA, October 1, 1988.

Carl Ransom Rogers In Memorial

by Ira David Welch

CARL RANSOM ROGERS

January 8, 1902 - February 4, 1987

Carl Rogers died on February 4, 1987. He was 85 years old. In a fall, he broke his hip, and while the surgery was successful, complications occurred and he died shortly afterward.

I am filled with emotions as I sit to write this piece to say goodbye and honor him. Two themes flood my thoughts. One is a story about Goethe's death and the other is the gift Carl Rogers left all of us.

It is told that as Goethe was dying, he cried out from his death bed, "Light! Light! The world needs more light." Many years later a philosopher said Goethe was wrong. He should have said, "Warmth! Warmth! The world needs more warmth. For we shall not die from the dark, but from the cold."

And that story leads to another. I once saw a map from the 15th Century in which the known world centered around Europe and Africa. In all the unknown parts of the world, of which there were many, some fearful and superstitious cartographer had written the words "Here Be Dragons" to warn seafarers not to venture into those unknown places.

Carol Rogers taught us that the unknown places of ourselves weren't inhabited by dragons. He lit our way through a tangle of human condemning psychologies. He did it with grace and warmth. We were able to take some measure of pride in our humanity. Carl Rogers loved us and because of that love the world is a brighter and warmer place. He left us a treasury filled with his teaching and so the light shines on. And, each time one of us reads something Carl Rogers wrote, we are touched by his warmth.

And so he is gone. There is little we could have done to give any more honors to him. Still, my hope is that he went to his death with the sure knowledge that the light and the warmth he gave to us was received with appreciation and affection.

Goodbye, Carl. Go with our love.

Ira David Welch is Professor of Counseling Psychology at the University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO.

CARL RANSOM ROGERS
January 8, 1902 - February 4, 1987

An Interview With Natalie Rogers, 1988 CACD Keynote Speaker

Interviewed by Sue Spooner

INTRODUCTION

Co-founder of the Person Centered Expressive Therapy Institute, 726 Mendocino Avenue, Santa Rosa, CA 95401, (707) 523-0203, and author of *Emerging Woman: A Decade of Midlife Transitions*, Natalie Rogers is a Certified Expressive Therapist, and a group facilitator trained in Client-Centered Therapy. She was interviewed while attending the Colorado Association of Counseling and Development 1988 Fall Conference as Keynoter and workshop leader.

SPOONER: To give our readers a little background about you; you acknowledge very gracefully and graciously that you are Carl Rogers' daughter. Naturally that causes people to be very much interested in you, in what you are like and what your life has been like. But one of the most important things I have learned about you is that you are very sure to make this profession of yours and the things that you do, your own kind of place in the sun. With that out of the way, we can go on and talk about Natalie Rogers rather than Carl Rogers' daughter.

Rogers: You are right. It is important for me to be my own person, so while I acknowledge my dad, it is important for me to create my own identity.

SPOONER: The other thing you said was what an impact your mother had on your life.

Rogers: Yes. I like to give her credit, because I feel women in general don't get enough credit for what they do in life. And people who knew her knew what a strong influence she was and what a very strong supporter she was of my dad. Indeed, I believe, as a daughter watching my parents as a couple, that her love and dedication and support was very very important to him in his early and middle years particularly.

SPOONER: And very much an influence on you. You mentioned her art and what a sensitive artist she was and how that has impacted what you are doing today. Maybe that's a good way for us to lead into having you tell us about the work you are doing.

Rogers: I am very excited about my work in using expressive art modes. At first I saw it as a way to be a good therapist, to help people be aware and in touch with themselves. When I first began, I was interested in using my own love for

---

Sue Spooner is an Associate Professor at the University of Northern Colorado, and President of the Colorado College Personnel Association.

art, yoga and movement, bringing those interests into my professional work. With clients or with groups, I found ways to bring art and movement into the sessions. Gradually, I realized that what I was doing was creating environments for other people to be creative, to find their own inner creative juices and vitality. Then I took training in art therapy with Janie Rhyne . . . she wrote the book *Gestalt Art Experience* and she was an influence on me. I also took Anna Halperin's training program and then became more involved in helping people to use their ability to express themselves in many ways through movement as well as verbally. One of my thoughts as I develop this work is that a lot of us talk about integrating mind, heart, body, and spirit. You have to use your body, be aware of your body, and know what messages your body give you to really be able to integrate all of yourself.

SPOONER: So talking about it is certainly not enough.

Rogers: That's right. It's one thing to say "I'm tense," or "I'm feeling pain in my gut," or "I'm being aware of it," but to find ways to express that kinesthetically is to find ways to release it. Releasing is like catharsis. Then, we go even further than releasing the feeling. That's one part of it. But I believe we go much more deeply than that to be in touch with our very inner essence and core, which then allows us to be open to the Universal Energy.

SPOONER: You talked about that connection.

Rogers: The connection between the inner and the Universal is very profound to me. It is experiential. It's not just a theory. It's something that I've experienced. And I see it happen to other people.

SPOONER: I've heard people say that it's something you can't talk *about*.

Rogers: It's very difficult. You know, it used to be very difficult for me to talk *about* Client Centered Therapy. Most of us who have been trained with Carl know that it is so different to experience it than it is to talk about it.

SPOONER: It comes from here in our center.

Rogers: Client Centered Therapy is an art form. It is a philosophy and an art form more than a method or technique. Person Centered Expressive Art Therapy is an art form integrating the very deep philosophy that my dad had, (which I have also), of respecting the individual's inner being and ability to determine her or his own direction with the opportunity to channel our expressions through movement, and art, writing, and sound.

SPOONER: Tell us a little bit about your Institute.

Rogers: We are a non-profit tax deductible educational organization, located in Santa Rosa, where I live, an hour North of San Francisco. I have developed a 300 hour training program for professionals. What excites me is the cross fertilization of artists, musicians, writers, counselors and therapists. Of course, many participants are in the helping professions, but we also have business people and doctors. So there's a lot of cross fertilization of the various professions. And we have a four level program. The first part of it happens in the summer. Level One, a six day program, introduces people both to person centered group facilitation and immediately involves people in their own creativity, whether they think they are creative or not. I'm very used to getting people who say "I can't move," or "I can't draw," or "I can't write" to do just that. Of course we all have the innate ability to be creative. So we find ways to make it fun and involving. The first level is six days and it's open to everybody. People can come and try it out. I find that the expressive arts are so unfamiliar that we need an introductory way to let people try them. Once they experience it, then frequently, they get hooked because as I say, "Creativity is like freedom; once you taste it, you can't do without it." We hold the program at a retreat center where there's a nice theatre space. It's very warm, with redwood floor and walls and a swimming pool and a hot tub. A sense of community happens very quickly.

SPOONER: Sounds like you have paid a lot of attention to choosing an environment.

Rogers: It's very important. Again, that's from my mother, I think. The aesthetic sense really influences us a lot. I suppose if I'd been in any other career I would be an environmental architect or something. It really does matter to me whether there's light and air and trees and greenery, or pictures on the wall. Level One is the six days and it is followed quite quickly by a Level Two which is ten days. In Level Two we spend time developing client centered counseling skills. I use triads, with an observer and a client and a counselor, and video feedback. We begin to talk about theory. We read about and discuss theory of creativity and its application as well as the personal imagery. Then Level Three is in January. That's a ten day program. People come back after they've had time to go home and try out what they've learned. Frequently we need to come back to recharge our energy because it is so different to feel your own potential in any kind of group that you are in, and then to go home and feel it sort of sink away as you get back into the high tech society, the high pressure job, or whatever. We need to support each other in finding ways to keep up that energy. Level Four is probably the most exciting. People come back as interns to one of the summer programs. They become observers and co-facilitators. People come back and learn how to facilitate. Now some of the people who've graduated . . . they get a certificate of completion . . . are beginning to teach it, and that's why I started this. I have always wanted graduate students, people who do research and carry the work further. What's exciting to me is that the interns are doing their term papers on the impact of the program on their work. One woman is doing a phenomenological study for her Doctoral thesis. She interviewed eighteen participants in depth for an hour and a half and transcribed all that material. So we are going to know what how people change and develop as they go through this training. I'm looking forward to that. I've had two people do their masters thesis using the Person Centered Expressive Therapy training as their central theme, then I learn from these studies; I grow, and we all grow together. That's what's fun.

SPOONER: I notice you never use the word "trainer."

Rogers: No, I don't. I certainly understand that organizational development language, but there's something about that word that sounds more like training animals in the zoo or something. It's not a real appealing word to me. I like the word facilitator. Actually, I like the word learner instead of participant, but my staff disagree with me on that. I call us learners and facilitators. I think that's the Carl Rogers part of me too. I included him on the initial faculty of the Institute on a part-time basis.

I've done workshops all over Europe, in Latin America, in Japan, and while I like going to places to do a three day or week long workshop, often you never see the people again and that's draining. You give so much, and you get something back at the moment, but the Institute provides greater continuity.

SPOONER: Let me change topics a little bit. Several colleagues said please ask how she feels about women's issues in counseling. Particularly women as clients, but also women as therapists and leaders in the profession.

Rogers: Statistically, numberwise, we certainly are the greatest majority of people in the helping and counseling profession. Women's issues have been very dear to my heart.

SPOONER: You had some personal experiences as both client and as professional and you might be able to articulate those in ways that might be helpful to the rest of us.

Rogers: One of the things I believe is true is that as counselors we draw to us the kind of people who are working through our own issues. When I got divorced, I had no support group of women. When I became a counselor, during those years from about 1968 to 75, I was noticing that women who were in the process of divorce came to me, and it was because I had just worked through it. I was a step or two ahead of them. It wasn't because I advertised as a divorce counselor, I think we naturally draw people to us that are working on the same issues. At the same time I was working to establish myself, to empower myself, to establish my own identity as a person, which I really had allowed to slip away. I could blame the male masculine society, and I did to some extent, but it was out of a lack of awareness that I let myself fade away and become a non-entity in support of my husband and my children. One of the things that amazed me at that time, and I imagine it's still true, was the many women who came to me saying that they had been to other therapists — psychiatrists, men mostly — who said "You must adjust to your role." I became very interested and involved in sex role issues, and spoke out very strongly. I wrote things about male female roles and how unfair and unjust they were and I tried to raise consciousness in my own way. I led many women's groups, particularly for women counselors. We used the expressive arts to develop our sense of our own history, and to talk about sexuality. I found it was quite easy for me to talk about sexual issues. It was amazing to me to read the literature, — what is written by women for women. I gained a tremendous sense of the importance of bibliotherapy. Women writers influenced me greatly. When I first saw the article about the myth of the vaginal orgasm. I looked at it and just folded it over and hid it in my pocketbook. You weren't supposed to see things like that written publicly. But once I had, I read it. I started speaking out on our own sexuality and encouraging other women to do so.

SPOONER: I think that's true. For many years women did not discuss with each other our sexual experiences, and therefore had really limited information about what was really true for women in general.

Rogers: One of the things that's impressed me too; when I was a married woman, between age 20 and 40, I thought I was most fortunate in a social situation if I could get to talk to men, because of course I thought they were the interesting people to talk to. And in some ways that was true, because we weren't very interesting to talk to. I wasn't particularly interesting. I didn't have much to talk about. I didn't have much identity. But now, I always seek out women because I think they have the most exciting and dynamic political, philosophical, and global issues that they are envisioning and writing about. Women are combining the very deep personal, emotional and nurturing issues along with the economic, the social and political issues, like Hazel Henderson. A lot of the futurists, like Joanna Macy, are discussing the connection between the personal, environmental and political.

SPOONER: Women seem to have the energy and the care. Did you find yourself confronted in any direct or indirect ways in founding your Institute, with having to deal with a male dominated business and therapy world?

Rogers: No. What happened to me was that I wrote my book, *Emerging Woman: A Decade of Midlife Transitions* which was a very personal/political statement. Then I spoke on women's issues a lot. Once you are aware of injustice, you can't become unaware. So everything hit me all the time. I found I was angry or in tears a lot. That was exhausting and really draining me. I was on the board of directors of the Humanistic Psychology Association, and constantly having to speak out to remind them of their responsibilities to women, so it was happening even where people should know better. I was always standing up and speaking out at conferences, asking for equal numbers of women as speakers and participants. It was pretty exhausting. I found that my anger was eating me up inside. I could see myself going down the tubes. In my move to work in creativity, I found I was acknowledging the beauty, the artistic and the aesthetic and the potential in all of us again. Instead of waging war, wage peace. I think my work in creativity is the way for me to embrace all of myself. Both my shadow side and my light. I want to encourage women and men to use their anger as an energy force to be channeled very positively. Instead of fighting, I am now channeling that energy in ways that, for me at least, are more constructive.

SPOONER: Do you have any special projects or dreams of yours that are waiting for you to have time and energy?

Rogers: I'm really thinking seriously about spending more tme doing my own art. My own. I have spent a lot of time, many many years, including when I was a mother, creating spaces for other people to be creative. That, in itself is a very creative process for me. I get nurtured by facilitating groups or by being with other people in that way. But I start doing my own artwork and get stopped, start again and get stopped. I've got a book in me that need to be written about the Creative Connection; the interrelation of all the modalities. I've started this book and had to put it in the file drawer, saying "Okay, you've got to go out and give talks and market what you are doing." I'm ready to make another kind of transition: to write and do my own sculpting or painting, and dance. So I'm going to find more time for that. I don't think I'll stop doing what I'm doing, but I'll shift my priorities. I'll try to find a different balance. That is my next dream. Like all dreams, it seems risky and scary. Who am I, if I'm not out there being a facilitator of therapy, because that's my identity now?

SPOONER: You mentioned the three most significant influences on your life were Mahatma Ghandi, Martin Luther King, and Eleanor Roosevelt. Would you like to add any names to that list, or would you like to leave it at that?

Rogers: I might add some names, hadn't thought about that, but as I thought about those three, the words came to me: "Who are these people for me? What is the Natalie Rogers part of these people? Ghandi is non-violence, Martin Luther King is equality, and Eleanor Roosevelt is justice." I think those three principles somehow are so deep in me, from my childhood. I remember feeling very deeply moved, as a seven or eight year old girl when those kinds of issues were shown to me in real life. We went traveling in the Appalachian Mountains. I'll never forget the first time I saw real poverty or real racial discrimination, how painful it was as a child to see it, to experience that. It's not that my parents preached or said anything particularly about it. It was my own experience of it. So those three principles are very meaningful to me.

Well of course, my dad. That goes without saying. He is a tremendous influence in my life. I have been so close to his way of thinking and being it is difficult for me to sort out what is Carl and what is me. And Abe Maslow was very important. I don't think he ever knew, really. I don't think I ever told him before he died because it hadn't hit me before I wrote my book how important it was that somebody I had admired, suggested that I go back to school. It never would have occurred to me or anybody in my family. My dad or my mother never said to me as a young mother, "How come you're helping your husband and not doing your own career?" That wasn't what women did. It didn't occur to me. But it did occur to Abe. He was very much a promoter of women. I saw him encourage women as scholars and researchers. So he was important.

I think my most difficult transition right now will be if I choose the art as a priority over psychology. It's not that my dad ever said, "Follow in my footsteps." He never did. But it's so ingrained in me, and in my daughters. There's something about Carl . . the way he would say, "I will choose to do the things that make the most impact in the world." It is a sense that we, as a family, have a mission in life — have a responsibility to help change the world. Again, I've felt that ever since I was a little kid. He didn't preach it, he lived it.

SPOONER: And you are too!

Rogers: I guess I am!

Youth Gangs and Violence: Implications for School Counselors

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by Daryl Sander

In recent months there have been scores of media reports about youth gangs and their related violence. In Denver last summer, the murder of sixteen year old Tay Carolina as he walked home in Northeast Denver shocked the entire metro area. The community was filled with rumors about open warfare between the Crips and the Bloods, both of whom had been active in criminal behavior in the neighborhood. In California a few years ago Mark Miller, a promising student and top high school athlete was gunned down outside a teen club in a largely white, affluent San Fernando Valley suburb. Mark had been a leader in the FFF, a white, suburban gang made up primarily of middle class youth. Their code was ". . . (1) be yourself, (2) live your own life, (3) fuck social values, and (4) fight for freedom" (Sullivan, 1986). Though largely an urban problem drawing disproportionately from ethnic neighborhoods, gang problems are a national problem, and there is scarcely a part of this country which remains unaffected by the phenomenon of youth violence and bloodshed.

In Denver the bloody encounters between Crips and Bloods have dominated the headlines in recent months, and though there have been numerous remedies proposed there is little evidence that the community has found an effective, long-term solution. In the Los Angeles area during the first six months of 1988, over 13,000 youth gang members had been arrested, but solutions seemed as elusive in that area as in any other (Brokaw, 1988). In Martinsburg, West Virginia, a town of only 13,000 Jamaican youth gangs moved in and twenty gang-related homicides were reported within an 18-month period (Miller, 1988).

For educators in general, and school counselors in particular, there are two basic needs for information: (1) more information about the reasons why youth are attracted to affiliation in violence-prone gangs, and (2) what kinds of intervention are likely to be most effective in reducing the attractiveness of gang membership.

WHY MEMBERSHIP IN GANGS?

All persons, at whatever age, have some need for affiliation with others, and the need for group affiliation in middle childhood and early adolescence is especially strong (Hartup, 1979; Conger and Peterson, 1984). In addition to the rapid physical changes and sexual development surrounding puberty, young adolescents often experience considerable uncertainty about the value of self, or how one is valued by others of the same age. Evidence suggests that self-esteem and the effects on it by peer pressures are perhaps the most important factors in social development during early and middle adolescence. (Derbyshire, 1968; Erikson, 1968). Peer pressures abound, and ". . . their self images are

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fragile constructions, continually subjected to a potential eroding of their identity by self-doubt'' (Muehlbauer and Dodder, 1983). It follows, then, that involvement in a group whose members share common values and goals, and approve of yours, is a direct method of maintaining and enhancing the self-image. Group membership leads to recognition and approval by others, and thereby contributes to an increased sense of self-worth. Gang activity, though it may be dangerous and illegal, provides the cohesion for the group, the companionship, peer approval, and ultimately the validation of self-worth (Hochhaus and Sousa, 1988; Friedman, Mann, and Friedman, 1975).

Another motivating factor in gang membership is physical protection. In many neighborhoods and schools any person is a potential victim of unprovoked violence. Such potential violence is not limited to the ghetto. Ours is a violent society, and there is no evidence that we are making it quieter or gentler. The need for protection from violence attracts some youth to gangs, and if a member is threatened by any who are outside of his group, the gang will come to his rescue. For some in especially violent neighborhoods, gang protection guarantees survival, and the lesson is not lost upon any youth who resides there (Hochhaus and Sousa, 1988).

In addition to the effects of group approval upon self-image and the need for group protection, membership in gangs provides excitement and fun. Despite the apparent dangers in gang activity, the fun of group sharing and the excitement of ''living near the edge'' are potent motives. The thrill of taking chances is not limited to adolescents, but the belief in one's own mystical indestructibility seems to be a uniquely adolescent phenomenon. One writer describes Southern California gang activity:

> In summer, the action around Hawthorne shifts to the coast — to Hermosa Beach, Manhattan Beach, Redondo Beach. The Rebels would drift with that tide, and so would the Insanity Boys, driving to the ocean in caravans of trucks and old cars, and raving for adventure (Barich, 1986).

Adventure for gang members may be starting a fight with a rival gang, doing drugs, or sipping club cocktails while listening to someone's ghetto-blaster. The sheer fun of the activity, when combined with the increasing frequency of involvement in drug traffic, provides instant wealth, the flashy clothes and jewelry, and the inevitable index of material worth — the special car. The fun, as well as the material rewards, become more common as the violence increases. When a 12-year-old shot and wounded a stockbroker on a crowded Corpus Christi street, the press reported that what shocked the victim more than the crime was ''. . . the way the kid blew the smoke out of his barrel, Clint Eastwood style, then got on his bike and rode away'' (Hackett, 1988). The result was tragedy for the victim, fun for the delinquent boy, and a dreadful quandary for educators and law enforcement professionals.

Most of the preceding discussion has been focused on why youth join already established gangs. Some gangs begin as maverick friendship groups, providing fun and validating the sense of self-worth among members, before the group matures into a law-breaking gang. Several authorities have studied the process of the origins of gangs and discovered distinct stages in development from a casual group of marginally adjusted adolescents into full-blown criminal gangs. One expert has presented a five-stage process of gang development: (1) a company of rejects, (2) the gang in embryo, (3) a community nuisance, (4) the antagonists, and finally, (5) the gang (Seng, 1986). During any of these stages, members see themselves as *giving loyalty to the group and receiving* in turn recognition and approval of other members. Usually in the early stages of the development of the gang, members identify themselves with some distinctive item of clothing, colors, logos or titles of favorite rock stars, and unqualified allegiance to the group. Within the group, individual actions of an anti-social nature earn praise from other group members and the scorn of those outside of the group (Bose, 1984; Morgenthau, 1988; Barich, 1986).

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS AND TEACHERS

The mandate from communities to their law enforcement agencies to do something — anything — to reduce the visible presence and effects of gang activity is usually met with increased police patrols and arrests. Since only a relatively small percentage of delinquent (law breaking) behaviors are ever reported in the first place, the usual result of the stepped-up police activity is a sharp increase in the number of arrests, giving the appearance over time of even more crime (Elliott, 1989). The well-known inability of the juvenile justice system in most communities to handle repeat offenders, let alone rehabilitate them, then adds to the heightened frustration of the community.

Most teachers and counselors tend to believe that prevention must be in the form of early intervention. Little evidence exists concerning which modes of intervention are most likely to prove effective in reducing gang membership and activity over the long run. However, some approaches have demonstrated sufficient value in other more general ways, and, therefore, merit consideration in the context of reducing membership in gangs. The following are offered as interventions which deserve try-outs with careful evaluation and possible modifications.

1. *Intensify and expand the tutoring and academic assistance for those in the middle grades (pre junior high school) who face very low achievement and impending failure.* Since most delinquency and beginning gang affiliations begin as early as the junior high school years, efforts to prevent academic failure must begin early and continue through the years of vulnerability. Although clear cause-effect relationships between socio-economic class, school achievement, and acts of delinquency are difficult to discern and document, logic and clinical experience suggest that reducing school failures may be a factor in limiting the expansion of gangs. (Sanders, 1974).

2. *Make adult mentors from the immediate community available to risk-prone youth in the 10 to 15-year old range.* Though mentoring (Levinson, 1978) has been a popular concept in late adolescent and early adult development, the full effects of it in early adolescence deserve a trial. Mentors should be carefully selected and matched with youth deemed at risk, and a system of frequent contact and mutual responsibility established. Mentors should be successful adults, persuasive as role-models, and able to maintain close liaison with teachers.

3. *Increase the availability of group activity and group counseling within the school context.* Some of the need for affiliation and peer approval might be met through skillfully facilitated group processes. Groups can provide recognition

of individual worth as well as emotional support for group members who feel alienated or rejected (Roark & Roark, 1979; Gazda, 1984; Lifton, 1972). Groups can be formed around such general concerns as "how to be successful in a tough school" or "being accepted by others." Realistically, the most difficult aspect of group counseling for those in upper elementary and junior high years is probably that of scheduling with minimum interruption of class attendance. There are, however, numerous examples of this occurring within schools, and a committed school staff can find the appropriate means.

4. *Improve the school's career education program in an effort to stem drop-outs.* Although the research findings on relationships between delinquent behaviors and school drop-out are somewhat inconsistent and may vary widely from one district to another, evidence shows that most serious gang-related crimes involve youth who have dropped out of school (Flowers, 1986; Elliott & Voss, 1974). Drop-out prevention for junior and senior high youth who are at risk might center upon work-study and internship programs which are closely supervised and closely related to academic interests and courses. Employment assistance for those who have left school and will no longer consider returning is a clear necessity. Job placement should take into account the questionable value of "dead end" jobs at minimum wage levels, particularly when there is little chance for the new worker to develop a bond of loyalty to the employer. No all employment is necessarily beneficial as far as delinquency prevention is concerned (Elliott, 1989). Ideal placement for drop-outs would provide for continued emotional support and career counseling.

5. *Design the entire program designed above in such a fashion that continuous evaluation can be accomplished with the opportunity for the necessary changes and adjustments to be made.* Although a full discussion of evaluation is beyond the scope of this paper, it should be emphasized that skillful evaluation is absolutely essential for school program accountability. A final outcomes assessment should tell both school and community about the long-term effectiveness and relative worth of each phase and program element as well as the total concerted effort.

It is realized that there will be failures as well as successes in a program such as that described above, just as there is with any human services interventions. According to Elliott (1989), there is probably no program which can guarantee success for delinquent-prone youth in all situations. Nonetheless, what our schools and communities invest in prevention programs is not only likely to reduce later dollar costs of prison and law-enforcement, but can relieve in immeasurable ways the human agony that inevitably accompanies today's level of teenage gang activity.

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Career Counselors Must Do Self-Defeating Behavior (SDB) Counseling

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by Billy D. Hargrave

Counselors and instructors who assist students with career planning often find students who have beliefs and/or behaviors that appear irrational, unproductive and self-defeating (Gaymer, 1973). Some examples are feelings of low self-esteem, self non-acceptance, excessive dependency, unrealistic expectations and beliefs that block the achievement of realistic goals. Actions driven by these beliefs are referred to a Self-Defeating Behaviors (SDBs) and they hamper the career planning process while interfering with personal growth. By contrast, an ideal career counseling situation would be one that allows the client to receive instruction and information that helps them to move toward a realistic career goal and, therefore, an increase in psychological health. A psychologically healthy person has a number of characteristics that enhance growth, including the honesty to be oneself and to trust a full range of feelings (Maslow, 1971). Other characteristics described by Maslow (1968) are a freshness of appreciation and a true perception of reality with an accompanying ability to be creative and spontaneous. Cerio, LaCalle and Murtha (1986) also mention flexibility and an inhostile sense of humor as characteristics of a truly "psychologically healthy" person. While many career counseling clients are psychologically healthy, career counselors also need to be ready to assist clients with SDBs to move toward psychological health.

Most career planning clients are not unhealthy, but they may possess some irrational beliefs and doubts that affect behavior and can have an adverse impact on the career planning process (Hamilton, Ganshaw, Helliwell, 1973). Identifying these SDBs will assist individuals with moving beyond the status quo toward a more healthy and fulfilling lifestyle (Kirk, 1986). An SDB often encountered in career counseling is low self-esteem or low self-worth. Gallup (1988) found in one study that one third of Americans have a low sense of self-worth with much of this low esteem coming directly from career and job issues. Dawis (1984) ties self-esteem to the cognitive process of self evaluation. Kinnier and Krumboltz (1984) point out that a cognitive restructuring is often needed to both identify and correct maladaptive thoughts and beliefs. Brammer and Abrego (1986) refer to the "self-defeating" instructions given by our thoughts as dramatically affecting the career development of adults. It is the thought processes of the individual that become irrational and self-defeating. While we can define SDBs as irrational beliefs that inhibit clients from achieving their goals, we must also be ready to challenge the belief systems of our clients, constantly confronting the irrational beliefs and pointing out the SDBs. In this manner, we can guide our clients into a rational and realistic examination of their beliefs and behaviors. After all, it is the client who must be the final judge

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of what is irrational and self-defeating because it is the client who must make the commitment to change.

The purpose for this article is to point out the prevalence of SDBs in the career planning process and to present several suggestions for the identification and eradication of these behaviors. If we expect our clients to feel satisfied about their career choices, then we need to develop a vehicle to assist them around the obstacles that interfere with self esteem and increased psychological health.

METHODS FOR IDENTIFYING SDBs

When a client requests career planning assistance, several assessments are made. In addition to the traditional interest inventories and aptitude tests, professional Career Counselors must also assess the psychological maturity of the individual and their position in the career planning process. These assessments can be used to introduce the concept of SDBs to the client, while providing impetus for embarking on a program of change.

One method of identifying SDBs is the personality inventory. The inventory used should be based on a healthy personality model rather than a pathological model. Several examples are the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), the Edwards Personal Preference System (EPPS) or the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). These instruments can be used to identify certain personality traits that move away from the norm. A dialogue with the client about the various traits presented and their relevancy to his/her situation can be an excellent way of identifying SDBs and introducing the SDB concept. In fact, the client can be asked to respond to the question, "How do you see this factor affecting your progress in career planning?" At Aims Community College, students are given a personality inventory before they attend a career planning session, and the SDB concept is introduced during the first hour the career planning group meets. SDBs are defined and students are asked to be aware of nay irrational beliefs they might have as the class progresses. They are challenged to see how quickly SDBs can be identified as they note and analyze behaviors that have brought them to their present situation. This immediate introduction to the SDB concept helps to pave the way for interpretation of the personality inventories and other exercises that deal with identifying SDBs.

Another method of introducing the SDB concept to groups is through counselor self disclosure. If the disclosure is kept simple and positive, it can serve as an example that helps group members understand the SDB concept, while providing the motivation for change. The SDB selected for disclosure should be something that has been successfully overcome and nothing that could damage the counseling relationship. An example of this type of disclosure was the well organized career planning instructor who shared his SDB of procrastination. Not only was this an example of a relevant SDB, but it presented a positive outcome. In another example, a career counselor shared that his fear of rejection and humiliation by colleagues led him to join a Toastmaster's Club that helped him become an award winning speaker. In still another instance, a counselor shared how reaching beyond his capabilities helped him land the perfect job. This technique requires imagination and a desire to reach the career planners on a human level. Humor can assist greatly when using this technique, but the counselor must be comfortable and genuine in order for this to be effective.

An SDB shopping list can also be an excellent way of introducing SDBs to individuals and groups (Rodriguez & Hardgrave, 1986). The list might contain general areas of concern (e.g. financial, understanding, physical, relationships, habits, feelings, activities, lack of success). Each career planner selects an area of concern and then is presented with a more comprehensive list of specific SDBs for that area. The focus includes selecting one behavior the career planner is willing to change. This method has the advantage of pointing out that some behaviors we accept as part of everyday life have self-defeating elements. A counselor can assist the individual with this process and point out possible obstacles to goal achievement if the SDB is not changed.

Once the SDB concept has been introducted to a group, a motivation game can be played to help group members further define SDB choices. The game has two rules: everyone must participate and money is no object. Participants are asked to select a three week activity they would do if money were no object. The group brainstorms their fantasies, and all responses are recorded. Excitement and motivation are created as the participants respond quickly and noisily. After brainstorming, each individual is asked to construct their own fantasy list and realistically determine when they can have their fantasy. If negative statements appear, they are confronted as possible SDBs. Statements such as: "I'm too old to start dreaming!" or "Where would I ever get the money for my dream?" or "That may be okay for you brainy types, but . . . ." are examples of negative statements that may lead into SDBs. The exercise deals with a materialistic agenda with which everyone can identify, but the pouring forth of ideas and the possible blocks to goal achievement that can be identified have a far reaching effect.

APPROACHES FOR ELIMINATING SDBs

Once identified, SDBs can be dealt with in the counseling relationship and confronted as obstacles to growth. If the identification process is thorough, the career planning clients should have both knowledge of their SDBs and a willingness to confront them. In addition, there are several published programs that can assist individuals with this endeavor (Chamberlain [1978]; Cerio et al [1986]).

Chamberlain (1978) states that neither he or his program can change anyone's behavior. Only the owner can do that. He believes, however, that sharing his seven step method for eliminating SDBs is helpful to those seeking positive change. Step one has the client keeping and critiquing a diary about the chosen SDB. Step two concentrates the client's attention on negative labeling and disavowing responsibility for the SDB. Step three has the client examining the price paid for maintaining the SDB. Step four helps the client realize how they activate the SDB in their normal activities. Step five seeks to assist the client in turning negative SDB activating techniques into positive SDB free techniques. Step six asks the client to examine the psychological fears associated with the SDB. Step seven lead the client into a visualization of life with out the SDB and a thorough reexamination of self image. The program allows each participant to work at their own rate and savor the fruits of success as they progress through the steps. Cerio et al (1986) presents a Cognitive-Behavioral Approach to eliminating Self-Defeating Behaviors. Unit one explains the approach used by the book and presents an overview of the process. Unit two deals with the

SDB circle and has the client selecting and tracking the SDB in their life. Unit three asks the client to concentrate on the thoughts and beliefs connected with the SDB. Unit four moves into the action phase of the SDB, and has the client examining productive goals. Unit five has the client examining feelings related to the SDB and provides techniques for modifying the SDB. Unit six moves the client toward Self-Enhancing Behaviors. Once again, the system is self paced and thoroughly treats the subject of Self-Defeating Behaviors.

Even though these programs exist and are available to career planning clients, career counselors should be prepared to assist their clients. Often we become conveyers of information and instructors in the art of career exploration. We must also be prepared to facilitate the confronting of personal issues that block our clients from being and doing all that is possible for them (Gysbers, 1984). If we are not prepared to deal with these issues, we have the professional responsibility to provide a trusted referral source that can and will assist our clients.

CONCLUSIONS

Self-defeating behaviors adversely affect the career planning process. If career planning is to be successful, these behaviors and precipitating beliefs must be confronted and modified as early as possible in the career planning process. In order to accomplish this, clients need to have SDBs defined early and the blocks to goal achievement that accompany them need to be treated. This awareness can be presented using a variety of techniques (i.e. administering and interpreting personality inventories, counselor self disclosure, SDB shopping lists and motivation games). Once identified by the client, the career counselor should be prepared to assist the client to overcome SDBs by providing a tested modification program, facilitating necessary changes or referring the client to a certified counselor willing to facilitate the change process.

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School Counselors: A Key To Helping Our Children

by Caroline R. Baker, Ed.D.

ABSTRACT

With the changing American family and more children in public schools at risk for failure, education decision makers must become aware of the link between the affective domain and a truly functioning society. Counselors are crucial to helping students develop skills for success in their studies and future life planning.

Public school children need counseling programs more than ever. As the 1980s come to a close, demographics point to unprecedented changes in America's population with a markedly different generation entering schools (Brandt, 1988; Howe, 1986; and Miller, 1988). Most mothers are part of the labor force, resuming their jobs while their children are still infants. Almost half of our students are children of parents who are divorced. Changes in family structures have caused stress for children and youth. Leaders among Colorado school administrators recognize the unmet needs of today's youth and the increase in suicide rates, teen pregnancy, drug and alcohol abuse, unemployment, and poverty (Difford, 1988). Colorado school counselors are also concerned about dropout rates, unemployment, and irregular attendance figures (Johnson, 1988). As we look ahead to replacing the skills of the retiring Baby Boomers, our children will inherit the responsiblity for sustaining the social, political, and economic institutions of our nation.

The philosophical legacies of the past decade have down played the affective domain in education. The federal government's *Nation at Risk* (1983) report, with its emphasis on toughening the curriculum, longer school hours, and higher test scores, did not mention counseling programs. Some decision makers have perceived counseling as a frill to be eliminated from strained budgets, and many of Colorado's elementary buildings do not have the services of a school counselor.

Guidance and counseling programs have occupied a major place in public education since the National Defense Education Act of 1958 when counseling processes and practitioners were seen as mechanisms to increase particular types of human capital needed for America's security and progress. For the next 20 years, legislation followed to deal with problems of disadvantaged students, child abuse, discrimination, vocational education, and handicapped youngsters. Although school counseling programs blossomed in the 1960s and 1970s as a tool for developing the whole child (Rogers, 1961), we must re-examine and re-implement those strategies so that public education will survive the task that lies ahead. America's children need direction in setting limits, in establishing a sense of self with values firmly in place (Glenn, 1987). It is in the public

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schools that they can find positive adult role models to provide hope and motivation for the future, offsetting the mixed messages they receive from the media and from their peers. Many parents have less time than in the past to provide the structure, modeling and support their children need. Counseling programs in every building, elementary through senior high school, can address the social realities of the changing family and children in need (Simon, 1987).

A growing research base shows positive effects for guidance and counseling programs across population types and settings. Children taught behavior-change techniques by school counselors made greater gains in attendance, achievement, and social behavior than children in a control group (Herr, 1985). Counseling that involves specific training in self-assessment, understanding the work world, and planning skills can enhance student career choices. Problem-solving and decision-making processes can be taught to students using a variety of modeling techniques and learning exercises.

Counselors serve as facilitators for building teamwork among teachers, administrators, and parents in helping children. Counselors are trained in staff development, and can update teachers on programs such as substance abuse prevention (implementing federal legislation), understanding learning disabilities (continuing support of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act), reporting and preventing child abuse (following Colorado's Child Protection Act of 1975 as updated in 1984), and AIDS prevention and understanding human sexuality. Counselors also promote cooperation among parents, whether meeting about a particular student, teaching parenting classes, or making referrals to outside community resources.

School counselors need to weave public relations into their guidance and counseling activities. Dialogues with both central office and building administrators can insure that fully certified counselors are hired for programs serving kindergarten through twelfth grade. Counselors need to meet regularly with their principals, promoting developmental programs that reach all of the students, and developing strategies to minimize time-consuming clerical tasks.

Membership in state and national counseling associations can provide tools for professional growth, networking, and reaching the community. The Colorado School Counselors Association has advocated that counseling programs be part of the accountability process in the state's Public School Finance Act of 1988 (Johnson, 1988). Local district planning committees need to include developmental counseling progrmas in their building action plans. State level coordination and supervision can provide leadership in implementing this process. More research is needed to document those counseling activities that make a difference for high risk students.

School counselors know that mere cognitive knowledge is not the key to America's future. Quality of life for all of our citizens rests in our concern for each other's well being. As we organize and rearrange the academic curriculum in our public schools we need to keep in mind the importance of our relationship with our fellow humans:

> More cognitive information will not prevent war, clean up the pollution, solve the megafamines, or save the ecology. It is the realm of the affective domain . . . attitudes, values, lifestyles, and priorities . . . that will determine whether a golden age or a gloomy tomorrow

> evolves during the next three decades. . . . Caring, foresighting, conserving, parenting, valuing, responsibility, frugality, relating, choosing, shaping, imagineering, creating, and renewing have the potential to make a difference (Glines, 1986).

School counselors play a significant role in working with students, the school staff, parents, and other members of the community to provide for the special needs of children. As advocates of children, school counselors lead efforts to improve achievement in our public schools.

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The Career Development Process In Transition: The Fluid Jig Saw Puzzle As A Better Paradigm

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by Mary E. Daniel and Richard W. Feller

Alvin Toffler states in *Future Shock*, "Change is avalanching upon our heads and most people are grotesquely unprepared to cope with it." (Alvin Toffler, 1970, pg. 12). Toffler's statement was made over nineteen years ago, and yet a response in terms of new paradigms in career development and planning programs seems lacking. Perhaps the problems is one of perspective and expectations regarding the career development process.

This article notes changes facing the employer, highlights the employer's response to changing career patterns and suggests practices supporting career transitions.

One of the most prominent and popular explanations of the career development process came from Donald Super who identified five states in the vocational process: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline (Super and Harris-Bowlsbey, 1979, pg. 10-11). The first stage, growth, begins at birth and ends at or about the age of fifteen. During this time frame, an individual is growing physically and mentally, observing adult roles, forming a unique self-image and acquiring the realization that planning is a necessity for the future. The second stage, exploration, encompassing the ages of fifteen to twenty-five, involves acquiring ideas about interests, values, experiences, occupations, decision making and occupational selections; testing those ideas through courses, conversations, reading, activities, part-time jobs and narrowing occupational choices, and putting ideas to work in education and training and ultimately in full-time employment in a chosen occupation. The establishment phase, occurring between the ages of twenty-five and forty-five, is spent retesting ideas in the vocational realm by making a commitment to a chosen occupation, trying out a new job or occupation or re-entering the employment market after a short reprieve. This leads to a stabilization with the employer and employee maintaining an employment position, assuming more responsibility and/or being promoted. The fourth stage, maintenance, occurs betwen the ages of forty-five and sixty-five and is composed of continued occupational productivity and planning for retirement. The final stage, decline, involves the remaining years after sixty-five, during which work hours are reduced or terminated and leisure time planning is incorporated (Super and Harris-Bowlsbey, 1979). This particular career development process is a linear approach. The stages may overlap for a period of time, but one is expected to move from point A to point B

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. . . once in a lifetime. However, this traditional view seems increasingly suspect as workers may experience five to seven different jobs and two to three careers within a worklife.

Richard Bolles identified a similar linear paradigm to career development in *The Three Boxes Of Life* (Bolles, 1981, pg. 5-6). The first box depicted education, the second, employment, and the third, retirement. Many people in the industrial age experienced, at least initially, going to school, graduating and securing employment, and at some point, usually near the age of sixty-five, retiring "from" work rather than "to" something else. This linear approach has become the exception rather than the rule. Richard Bolles views the career development process in a multi-linear fashion with individuals involved simultaneously in life long learning, employment and leisure time activities. Bolles' life/work planning and life career theory (Tiedeman, 1988) incorporates the useful portions of Super's work while allowing for the impact of transitions and personal decision making. Popular publications such as *What Color Is Your Parachute?* (1988), *The New Quick Job Hunting Map* (1986), and *Where Do I Go From Here With My Life?* (1981) added to the library of self-help books which assist individuals of all ages in career changing, securing employment, and life/work planning.

The linear approach to career development is relatively easy to comprehend and put into practice. Problems emerge, however, as the interaction between education and work within a dynamic and global economy change. For many, the puzzle that exemplifies the development of a career no longer fits within simple linear boundaries. The linear process has now become a fluid jig saw puzzle with pieces locking together for periods of time at various locations in the puzzle. There are times when all the pieces are locked in place simultaneously with the puzzle flowing from one shape to another as changes are encountered and assimilated, much as mercury flows, breaks apart and changes shape as it absorbs pieces previously detached. At other times, pieces break away as the puzzle flows failing to lock in place completely. What causes the breaking away and temporary dislocation of the pieces of the fluid jig saw puzzle? Lack of preparation for changes in society, technology, and the economy; the information explosion; computerization; robotics; and the increasing extent of international trade are only a few of the reasons dislocation and disorientation occur, compounded by rapid and continuous change. The individual is not the only entity experiencing difficulty in dealing with the fluid jig saw puzzle. The public and private sectors are scrambling to establish proactive institutional programs as well. One might imagine the results of their efforts as tremors radiating out in all directions from the epicenter of an earthquake. Difficulty in estimating how intense the next tremor will be within a dynamic economy at a macro level leaves many companies dysfunctional. For example, companies attempting to become "lean and mean" reduced their numbers at the mid-management level during the recession. A number of these organizations are now facing a major expertise gap between the new entry level managers and the top level managers preparing to retire from the firm.

Some American companies have built upon their expertise to maintain a grip on the fluid jig saw puzzle of individual workers. By working within new organizational structures such as lattice and hub networks, quality circles, and ad hoc project groups participating in decisionmaking, forecasting, trouble shooting, and strategic planning, employers may find room to adapt. However, these structural changes require workers at all levels to further develop written and verbal communication, interpersonal and critical thinking skills. Additionally, the promotion of intrapreneurship or entrepreneurship within a company offers workers increased options by encouraging them to expand their role whiel remaining with their present employer rather than becoming competitors in spin off companies (Naisbitt and Aburdene, 1985).

Employees hired and maintained by firms with these values often have a strong commitment to the company's values and ideals (Rantz and Feller, 1985). More often they are capable of growth and change, have the ability to accommodate and relearn, can speak and write technically, apply math, are open-minded, have a broad knowledge base, and view learning as part of their work role. All of these requirements for employment are prized as TLC . . . thinking, learning and creativity skills (Kiplinger Washington Letter Staff, 1986).

Previous corporate approaches to career change have been group approaches which often overlooked individual differences and learning styles. How are employers dealing with an increasing number of employees facing transitions while building upon the expertise they currently possess? Many organizations are creating career development programs and establishing career resource centers. These often include the following career development and planning practices (Walker and Gutteridge, 1979):

- informal counseling by personnel staff,
- career counseling by supervisors,
- workshops on interpersonal relations,
- job performance and development planning workshops,
- outplacement counseling and related workshops,
- psychological testing and assessment,
- workshops and communications on retirement preparation,
- testing and feedback on aptitudes and interests,
- referrals to external counselors and resources,
- training of supervisors in career counseling,
- career counseling by specialized staff counselors,
- individual self-analysis and planning, assessment centers for career development purposes,
- life and career planning workshops.

These components are reinforced by integrating human resource and career development practices, especially during times of rapid change and accelerated career transitions.

The human resource activities of performance appraisals, training, job posting, forecasting and compensation weaving in and out of the career development activities of self-assessment, reality checking, goal setting, planning, learning/skill building and implementing career movement are like "a chain link fence" (Leibowitz, Farren and Kaye, 1986). The integration of human resource and career development activities forms a base from which transitions may be made to grasp the fluid jig saw puzzle.

Further appreciating the cost of transitions, some companies have developed a self-assessment audit which integrates financial concepts and career analysis (London and Mone, 1987). The "career balance sheet" includes:

- assets (skills and abilities, experience, education and motivation)
- receivables (money, promotion, recognition and favors people owe you)
- liabilities (time, energy, weaknesses, and reliance on others)
- debt (obligations to organization, profession, supervisor, and job)
- equity (faith the organization has in you)
- risk (to you and to the company)

The "career income statement" includes (London and Mone, 1987):

- revenue (income, challenge, achievements, and extent to which expectations are met)
- costs (financial expenses, stress at work, stress at home caused by work, and energy expended)
- and dividends.

Employers' attempts to maintain a proactive stance in dealing with the fluid jig saw puzzle are encouraging. Considerable communication skills are apparant in all of these activities, but are many times overlooked and devalued in career preparation programs. Four skills included in this area, writing, reading, speaking and listening, are of great significance in managing a successful transition (Stewart, 1986). However, formal training time in each area is disproportionate when compared with the percentage of use in practice, as the following indicates (Stewart, 1986, pg. 30):

TABLE 1

Skill	Of Total Communications, % Of Use In Practice	Formal Training In Skill
Writing	9%	8-12 + years
Reading	16%	6-8 + years
Speaking	35%	1-2 + years
Listening	40%	0-½ + years

The development of these communication skills in combination with critical thinking is imperative to successfully maneuver through the career development process under the fluid jig saw puzzle paradigm. Without them, a state of paralyzed panic is created with individuals becoming frozen in a dysfunctional position. Oddly enough, it is the development of these skills that enables individuals to emerge and take control of their situation, providing an opportunity for the pieces of the fluid jig saw puzzle to again lock in place.

A suggested strategy for working with the fluid jig saw puzzle was authored by Leon Martel (1986) and is a "Strategy for planning for the future assuming that change is more likely than continuity. Five steps are involved:

1. Recognize that change is occurring;
2. Identify the changes likely to affect one's particular business, profession or personal plans;
3. Determine the type and probable pattern of each identified change;

4. Rank the changes by the importance of their effect and the likelihood of their occurrence;
5. Make use of the changes" (pg. 249).

Change can facilitate transitions through the career development process utilizing the fluid jig saw puzzle perspective. William Bridges states, "Americans have always been in transition. Whereas Old World families began with a place, New World families began with an act of migration. Nor did the transition from an old life to a new one end when the immigrants arrived on these shores. From place to place and job to job, they kept moving. Drawn forward by the faith that better things lay just beyond the horizon, they lived a life marked by frequent transitions" (Bridges, 1980, pg. 2). Somewhere along the way, many left behind the ability to cope with change or perhaps a willingness to try. The fluid jig saw puzzle does not permit a choice. Learning to make transitions quickly and effectively, keeping the puzzle pieces locked together long enough to move toward the next career challenge is imperative, especially in a workplace where the only constant is change.

SUMMARY

The concept of a fluid jig saw puzzle configuration for the career development process is suggested to identify the changes or transitions employees increasingly experience. Communication and people skills combined with critical thinking facilitate the transition from one occupation to another once a planning strategy for the future is in effect. When change is seen as a challenge leading to a new opportunity, rather than an obstacle to be avoided, employees are closer to equipping themselves with the skills needed to move the pieces of the fluid jig saw puzzle back in place ready for the next transition.

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Adolescents and Anger: The Effect of Family Structure

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by Shirley Gwinn Coffman, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

Secondary students from three different family structures were administered the Coffman Questionnaire and the Spielberger Anger EXpression Scale. A random selection of students received group counseling. Results are examined by family structures.

It is estimated that 45% of all children born in any given year will reside with only one of their parents before reaching their eighteenth birthday (Francke et al., 1980). Children and adolescents from divorced families are transformed into students from divorced families. Heatherington et al. (1981), researchers of the effects of divorce on children, state:

> Comparative studies are needed of family functioning and child development in diverse family forms such as the mother-or-father-custody one-parent household, the family composed of one parent and another adult, and stepparent families. This pluralistic approach to families is needed to identify the differences, strengths, and problems in diverse family configurations and determine their relation to the adjustment and achievements of students in the school setting (p. 96-97).

It is crucial that each student be regarded as a unique entity. It is important that students from divorced families not be regarded as a homogeneous population and that divorce not be viewed as a singular constant event (Pring, Bella, & Oppenheimer, 1983). Generally, studies only report findings unique to the single-parent family child. Details concerning the age of the child at divorce, number of remarriages and resulting divorces or the possibility of the mother having never married are seldom recorded.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

The marital rupture is a time of crisis that teachers, pediatricians, and mental health workers rank second only to death in the family as requiring the greatest amount of adjustment for the child (Coddington, 1972). Studies of Kalter (1977) offered evidence that children of divorce comprise 50-75% of the out-patient case load of child psychiatrists. Robinson and McVey (1985) contend divorce has replaced death as the most traumatic event in the life of children in this country; children are now more likely to find themselves in single-parent famies due to divorce than death in the United States.

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Who exactly are these children/adolescents in crisis? How old were they when the divorce occurred? Research that spans the arc of "children in divorce" fails to offer the precise knowledge essential for attempting to meet the unique developmental need of adolescents that are compounded by a marital rupture. It is crucial that secondary school counselors be provided a researched description of their student population.

THE PROBLEM

The dilemma confronting the secondary school counselor is: research fails to identify those characteristics that correlate with academic success of students from intact, single-parent, and reconstituted families. Consequently, counselors are left groping. Should they encourage participation in school activities, increased visitation with the absent parent, or more hours devoted to homework?

Wallerstein and Kelly (1974) identified the predominant emotional response of the adolescents to marital rupture as intense anger that dominated the mood of the young person in its fierceness and pervasiveness. Fights with friends, teachers, and other adults in positions of authority characterize the observable actions of the anger-ridden adolescent population.

Knowing that only 25% of the children of divorce receive any type of counseling during their parents' divorce (in contrast to 90% of the parents involved who sought assistance from at least one outside source, with many utilizing several sources) (Bonkowsky, 1981), there is an unspoken demand for the formation of counseling groups within the secondary schools.

THE METHOD OF THIS RESEARCH

The purpose of the study (Coffman, 1987) was three-fold:

1. To discover the relationship among variables reported by students in grades 10, 11, and 12 and their expression of anger.
2. To determine if the expression of anger of students in grades 10, 11, and 12 could be modified through the intervention of group counseling sessions.
3. To examine the role of the expression of anger in conflict.

Population and Sample

The population was the 1,046 students of a three-year secondary school located on the front range of the Rocky Mountains in the state of Colorado. The students were predominantly White and from middle-income families. Although the population of this secondary school was in no way representative of secondary schools throughout the United States, it was by no means atypical or drastically unique.

Procedure

During one class period all students in attendance at the secondary school who had been permitted by their parents/guardians to participate in the study were asked to complete the Coffman Questionnaire and the Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scale. Any student from the population of students who completed the Coffman Questionnaire and the Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scale (Spielberger et al., 1986) could volunteer for membership in one of the three groups designed to provide support for adolescents in divorce as well as the control group. A random selection from those students who volunteered resulted in students being invited to participate in three support groups for adolescents whose parents were divorced, as well as the control group. Seven students were invited to join each of the three support groups. Seven students were invited to be members of the control group.

The groups were formed the week the Questionnaire and the Scale were completed. The treatment groups met two times a week for the six weeks thereafter (Roark & Roark, 1979; Yalom, 1985). The duration of each group session was 50 minutes. There was no attempt to "match" membership in the three groups.

The research involved three groups, each receiving the same treatment, but under different leadership. One of the three groups was facilitated by the researcher, who was a certified secondary school counselor with seven years of secondary school counseling experience. Another group was facilitated by a grade 12 secondary school student who had been a key participant in the formation of support groups for adolescents from divorced families and had been a member of the groups for the past two years at the secondary school; although the school counselor was always available for intervention/consultation during the meetings of this group, her direct involvement was never sought. The third group was co-facilitated by the research and this student. For a complete description of the counseling treatment see Coffman and Roark (1988). A control group was formed comprised of students who had expressed an interest in becoming a member of a support group for adolescents from divorced families. The control group met only twice. One time they were advised that they had been put on a "wait list.' The second time they completed, once again, the Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scale. Members of the control group were invited to actively participate in a support group at a later time that academic year.

The Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scale was administered to all members of the support groups for adolescents from divorced families during the terminating therapy session. That scale served as the post-test of the study.

Instrumentation

Coffman Questionnaire

Twelve items of the Coffman Questionnaire elicited responses concerning gender, grade level, age, grade point average, school activities, unexcused absences, ethnic group, perceived economic status, education of biological or adoptive mother, education of biological or adoptive father, education of first stepmother (if applicable) and education of first stepfather (if applicable). Responses to another 27 items formed a picture of the health-risk behaviors, spiritual growth indicators, use of non-school hours, and anti-social behaviors of the participating student. Last, in the Coffman Questionnaire the student indicated if he/she resided in an intact family, single-parent family, reconstituted family, or other family situations:

1. Intact family — unit comprised of two legally married adults and the biological offspring of that legal bond. These parents have never been married to another person nor have they ever been divorced/remarried to/from their spouse. The student involved in the study has always maintained permanent residence with these same parents.

TABLE 1

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Grade Point Average Among Adolescents From Intact Families, Single-Parent Families, and Reconstituted Families

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	8.8216	4.4108	7.3287	.0008
Within Groups	333	200.4165	.6019		
Total	335	209.2381			

Newman-Keuls Analysis of Mean Differences Among Family Groups on Grade Point Average

			Group		
Standard Deviation	Means	Group	3	2	1
0.746	2.750	3			
0.821	2.911	2			
0.796	3.200	1	*		

* Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the 0.050 level.

Group 3 = Reconstituted Families
Group 2 = Single-Parent Families
Group 1 = Intact Families

2. Single-parent family — unit comprised of one biological parent of the student involved in the study who was legally married to the biological father (or mother) of the student before the divorce, the student, and (if applicable) the full brothers and/or full sisters of the student involved in the study. The custodial biological parent has never been married/divorced to/from another adult. There is no other adult residing in the home. The student involved in the study has always maintained permanent residence with this same biological parent.
3. Reconstituted family — unit comprised of one biological parent of the student who is legally remarried to the biological father (or mother) of the student or married to another adult. The family unit may consist of stepbrothers and/or stepsisters of the student involved in the study.
4. Other family situations — all family structures that are characterized by any of the following: absence of legal marriage of the cohabiting adults, parental role assumed by non-biological parent (e.g., grandmother, aunt, uncle, older sister, foster family, etc.), legally married parents or single parents of adopted children.

The reliability and the validity of the Coffman Questionnaire have not been established.

Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scale

The Spielberger Scale:

> is comprised of 24 items and yields four different scores. The Anger Expression (AX/EX) score, which is based on all 24 items, provides a general index of how often anger is aroused or suppressed. The three AX subscales assess individual differences in the tendency to: (1) express anger toward other people or objects in the environment (AS/Out); (2) experience but hold in (suppress) angry feelings (AX/In); and (3) control the experience and expression of anger (AX/Con). (Spielberger et al., 1986, p. 1)

Research concerning the Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scale evidences the correlations between the subscales of AX/In and AX/Out are essentially zero, which suggests these subscales are factorially orthogonal, as well as empirically independent. Alpha coefficients for AX, AX/In, and AX/Out range from .73 to .84. Validities of AX, AX/In, and AX/Out have been reported as showing significant correlations with the Trait Anxiety Scale and the State Anxiety Scale. AX, AX/In, and AX/Out scores have been shown to be significantly correlated with systolic and diastolic pressure for females and males, with the exception of AX/Out and diastolic blood pressure for females. Spielberger et al. (1984) found that as AX/In scores increased, so did systolic blood pressure; as AX/Out scores increased, a decrease was registered in systolic blood pressure.

RESULTS

Five hundred sixty-three (53.8%) of the 1,046 students of the school completed the Coffman Questionnaire and the Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scale. Three hundred and five (52.2%) students reported residing in intact families. Forty-six (8.2%) students reported residing in single-parent families. Seventy-four (13.1%) reported residing in reconstituted families. One hundred ninety students (33.7%) reported residing in other family situations. The demographic profile reported by the students was essentially the same for adolescents from intact families, single-parent families, and reconstituted families. There were minor differences such as nearly twice as many grade 10 students as grade 12 students comprised the group from single-parent families. Also, 74% of the students from intact families, 67% of the students from single-parent families, and 62% of the students from reconstituted families reported no unexcused absence. While these differences are interesting, they are not of magnitude to be expected to significantly affect the student academic performance.

A one-way analysis of variance and a chi-square analysis were employed to determine differences, with the independent variable being the family system and the dependent variables being academic grade point average, participation in school-related activities, school attendance, health-risk behavioral indicators, spiritual growth behavior indicators, use of non-school hours, anti-social growth behavioral indicators, expression of anger, and modification of expression of anger through group counseling.

Significant Findings

There was a significant difference ($p < .5$) between grade point averages of students from intact families and reconstituted families. Students from the former family group averaged 3.20 and students from the latter group averaged 2.75. The educational level of parents in these two groups is different enough to suggest a possible explanation. The biological or adoptive mothers and fathers in the intact families were reported to have attained a higher percentage of college degree than did parents in the reconstituted families. Perhaps students from intact families were encouraged to excel academically because of the expectations of the parents.

There was a significant difference between the total number of school activities participated in by students from intact families and reconstituted families. Students from intact families participate in more activities than do students from reconstituted families.

TABLE 2

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Participation in School-Related Activities Among Adolescents From Intact Families, Single-Parent Families, and Reconstituted Families

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	10.7972	5.3986	3.4019	.0345
Within Groups	332	526.8625	1.5869		
Total	334	537.6597			

Newman-Keuls Analysis of Mean Differences Among Family Groups on Participation in School-Related Activities

Standard Deviation	Means	Group	Group 3	Group 2	Group 1
1.054	1.042	3			
1.180	1.341	2			
1.251	1.551	1	*		

* Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the 0.050 level.

Group 3 = Reconstituted Families
Group 2 = Single-Parent Families
Group 1 = Intact Families

There was also a significant difference between use of non-school hours by students from intact and reconstituted families. Students from intact families reported spending more time outside of school by reading, being with friends,

TABLE 3

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Use of Non-School Hours Among Adolescents From Intact Families, Single-Parent Families, and Reconstituted Families

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	1.1251	.5626	3.3406	.0367
Within Groups	312	52.5407	.1684		
Total	314	53.6659			

Newman-Keuls Analysis of Mean Differences Among Family Groups on Use of Non-School Hours

			Group		
Standard Deviation	Means	Group	3	2	1
0.366	2.750	2			
0.384	2.708	3			
0.420	2.835	1	*		

* Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the 0.050 level.

Group 3 = Reconstituted Families
Group 2 = Single-Parent Families
Group 1 = Intact Families

keeping summer jobs, and being with family than did students from reconstituted families.

A Pearson-Product Moment Correlation reveals that the longer the adolescent lives in a reconstituted family with the new stepparent, the more likely he/she will express anger outwardly and engage in anti-social behavior.

There was a significant increase in the ability to control anger for adolescents in the intact group as measured by pre and post Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scales.

Other Important Findings

There was no significant difference among the three groups of adolescents (adolescents from intact families, adolescents from single-parent families, and adolescents from reconstituted families) in school attendance, health-risk behavioral indicators, spiritual growth behavioral indicators, anti-social behavioral indicators and the expression of anger.

There was no significant difference in the expression of anger among the three groups of adolescents. Generally, all three scores (i.e., Anger-Out, Anger-In, Anger-Control) indicated the ability of students to handle their anger in appropriate ways. Scores from the students of this secondary school on the

Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scales related to the 50th percentile of scores based on the normed sample of male and female secondary school students (Spielberger et al., 1986).

A series of t-tests compared the pre- and post-Spielberger Anger EXpression (AX) Scales for the counseling groups by family structure. Generally, there was no indication of modification of expression of anger through group counseling according to the family structure of the adolescent.

Though not identifiable statistically, the author noted the following effects of group counseling experiences on the group members: (1) an increase in cohesiveness within the group, (2) an absolute commitment to attendance at sessions, (3) the development of respect for fellow members of the group, and (4) an increase in the use of diverse services offered by the school counseling department.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn from the discussion of the results:

1. Adolescents are similar in many ways across family structures.

2. Where adolescents differ, factors such as educational level of parents and consistency of the parent figure appear to play key roles.

3. Many similarities exist for adolescents from intact families and adolescents from single-parent families, the two family groups which provide a consistent parent figure to the developing adolescent.

4. Students of this secondary school appear to be no different from a normed sample of American secondary school students in the way they handle anger.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELORS

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are suggested to secondary school counselors.

1. Obtain demographic data on your student population. In addition to determining family structure, information can include the total number of school activities participated in and educational level of the parents. Although not significant influences in this study, the variables of ethnicity and perceived economic status may alert the counselor to special needs of the student population.

2. Talk to each student personally about "how things are going," express interest in them and show support.

3. Assist the student who has a low grade point average in identifying potential problems with parents.

4. Help the students to integrate successfully with peers in extracurricular activities.

5. Counseling groups with students ideally should last longer than 12 weeks to increase the possibility of significant change.

27 ITEM INDICATOR

Directions: Following are a list of statement. Read each statement and then circle the number to the right of the statement that indicates how *often* you *generally* react or behave in the manner described. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement.

	Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Almost Always
13. When not in school I like to read	1	2	3	4
14. I vandalize property	1	2	3	4
15. I drink alcohol	1	2	3	4
16. I feel my life has meaning	1	2	3	4
17. I hit people in the hallways at school	1	2	3	4
18. When not in school I like to be with friends	1	2	3	4
19. I fight with my parents/guardians	1	2	3	4
20. I *start* fights with my parents/guardians	1	2	3	4
21. I break rules that could result in suspension from school	1	2	3	4
22. I *start* fights with peers	1	2	3	4
23. I fight with peers	1	2	3	4
24. I shop-lift	1	2	3	4
25. I get speeding tickets	1	2	3	4
26. I am able to keep a summer job	1	2	3	4
27. I steal from other students' lockers	1	2	3	4
28. I experience a sense of "awe" of creation	1	2	3	4
29. I like to pick on little kids	1	2	3	4
30. I have an attitude of hoping and wishing	1	2	3	4
31. I *start* fights with adults	1	2	3	4
32. I fight with adults	1	2	3	4
33. I smoke/chew tobacco	1	2	3	4
34. I write nasty notes to students	1	2	3	4
35. When not in school I like to be with my family	1	2	3	4
36. I write on school walls	1	2	3	4
37. I feel that I am "related" to all humans	1	2	3	4
38. I use illegal drugs	1	2	3	4
39. I use seatbelts	1	2	3	4

Source: S.G. Coffman (1987).

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The Role of Hispanic Students' Participation In a Hispanic Youth Organization In Enhancing Pro-Academic and Pro-Social Behavior

by Juan Ramirez & Nancy McMenamin

> It is an unfortunate fact of life in the United States that Hispanic students achieve less in school, drop out more often and earlier, and are more often incorrectly placed in special education programs . . . (Grossman, 1984, p. 5).

The educational statistics on the lack of success of Hispanic students are at crisis proportions (McDill, Natriello, & Pallas, 1985; Sue, 1981; Valverde, 1987). While the education system is "open to all," educational opportunities for the Hispanic population are often limited in comparison to the general population. As an example, Grossman (1984) focused on the culturally inappropriate education received by Hispanic students which has resulted in a disproportionate number dropping out of school.

According to Valverde (1987), the estimates of dropout rates for Hispanic students range from 35% to 85%. In addition, the percent of Hispanic high school students entering college declined from 35.4% in 1975 to 29.9% in 1980. While exact percentages may vary, there is no question that large ethnic group differences do occur and that there exists a serious problem with the education of Hispanic youth (McDill et al., 1985; Valverde, 1987).

Although many variables have been posited to contribute to the lower success rate of Hispanic students, previous studies have not included an affiliation variable. To the extent that affiliation leads to a positive change in Hispanic students' academic performance and retention, educators will have one more means to stem the tide of the catastrophic flood of discontinuers and the resulting loss to themselves and society.

Affiliation is a term used to denote a very basic need to associate with other people (Maslow, 1954; Murray, 1938). Among the various benefits of affiliation is its function as a facilitative motivator which aids us in making specific goals into positive incentives (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1985). In addition to affiliation's supportive role, is its function in the development of social comparison which allows us to have viable guides for behavior — particularly when faced with a threatening, unfamiliar or uncertain experience (Weiten, 1986).

The process of affiliation, known as interpersonal attraction, is greatly facilitated by similarity among the persons in contact (Byrne, 1971). Relationships among similar people may be enhanced by the greater

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reinforcement they provide for each other and the lessened likelihood of rejection (Weiten, 1986).

However, the Hispanic student is often not in the mainstream of the educational system (Sheldon & Ramirez, 1987; Sue, 1981). Thus, affiliation within the school setting and participation in organized school activities are usually limited, and their positive outcomes are not forthcoming.

The present study, descriptive and exploratory in nature, examined the extent to which Hispanic high school students' involvement in a Hispanic youth organization enhanced their pro-academica and pro-social behavior. For purposes of this study, pro-academic behavior is that which contributes to one's academic success, e.g., attendance and improved grade point average, and pro-social behavior is to be construed as that which enhances interpersonal functioning, e.g., affiliation with others. Because the youth organization gave Hispanic students the opportunity to affiliate with others like themselves, it allowed the researchers to assess the extent of participation and impact of affiliation.

METHOD

Participants

Fourteen Hispanic students who had been members of a League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) Youth Council in a Colorado high school participated in the study. The high school was selected because its LULAC Youth Council was the first in the state and has become a role model for other high school councils now organizing in Colorado.

The participants consisted of 2 males and 12 females having a mean age of 17.4 years (with a range of 16 to 20). The number of persons living in the same residence ranged from two to eight, with a mean of 4.7. The average grade point average was 2.5, with a range of 1.5 to 3.2 (on a 4-point scale). Other demographic data on the participants is summarized in Table 1. With respect to ethnicity, eleven students identified moderately to very strongly with the selected term, three indicated they considered themselves bicultural, while none rated themselves as Anglicized.

LULAC Youth Council Experience

The amount of time that the participants had spent at the designated high school (with number of students in parentheses) was: less than 1 year (3), 1-2 years (3), 2-3 years (2), and all 3 years (6). Length of time involved with the LULAC Youth Council was: less than 1 year (5), 1-2 years (4), 2-3 years (1), and all 3 years (4). The small number of participants precluded meaningful correlational analyses among the variables.

Youth Councils in the schools.

The Youth Council in this study was established in 1983 and its major goals are to promote education, community service, healthy recreation, and leadership training. Furthermore, it is intended by the adult council that the Youth Councils will instill pride in one's school, Hispanic culture and country.

Instruments

Development. The instruments — High School Experience Questionnaire (HSEQ) and LULAC Youth Council Experience Questionnaire (YCEQ) — were

TABLE 1

Demographic Information on Participants

Variable	*n*	(%)
Home Environment		
House with parents (1 other relatives)	10	(71%)
Apartment with parents	3	(21%)
Apartment with child	1	(8%)
Household Income		
Under $9,999	6	(50%)
$10,000 - 29,999	2	(17%)
$30,000 - 39,999	4	(33%)
Blank	2	
Religious Preference		
Catholic	10	(71%)
Protestant	4	(29%)
Ethnic Identification[a]		
Chicano	1	(7%)
Chicano/Mexican/Hispanic	1	(7%)
Hispanic	5	(37%)
Mexican/Hispanic	3	(21%)
Mexican	3	(21%)
Mexican American	1	(7%)
Plans for 6 Months Post Graduation[a]		
College	4	(29%)
College/Work	4	(29%)
College/Military	1	(7%)
College/Work/Marriage	1	(7%)
College/Trade School	1	(7%)
Work	1	(7%)
Not sure	1	(7%)

Note: *n* = 14.

[a] Participants marked all responses that applied.

developed by the senior author. They were reviewed by a measurement specialist and a high school counselor and then revised. Pilot testing involved administering the measures to LULAC Youth Council members in a different high school from that being studied and then asking them for feedback on clarity and appropriateness. The students' written and verbal comments were used in finalizing the forms used in this study.

High School Experience Questionnaire. The HSEQ contained 15 questions covering various aspects of the high school experience. Five asked the student to rate the helpfulness (on a five-point scale) of specific school and family groups relative to their planned graduation. Three questions related to school and work activities in which the student participated and attendance during grades 10, 11, and 12. Six items elicited open-ended responses regarding personal experiences with people and situations which contributed to the student's success or provided support. The final question asked the student to rate overall feelings/thoughts about high school on a five-point scale from Very Negative to Very Positive.

LULAC Youth Council Experience Questionnaire. The YCEQ consisted of 10 questions with multiple choice responses. Four questions related to the length of time at this high school, years involved with LULAC Youth Council, type of involvement (member, officer, both), and reason for joining. Four items asked the student to rate the affect of joining the LULAC Youth Council on grades, getting along with other students, involvement with other activities, and attendance. Finally, the students rated their overall feelings/thoughts on the Youth Council and provided additional open-ended comments.

Procedure

Following the development of the instruments, the Youth Council's sponsor was contacted and her cooperation enlisted. She secured permission from school personnel and announced the study and opportunity to participate at a scheduled meeting during the latter part of the spring term. The second author met with interested students and briefly explained the study, responded to questions, and presented the instructions for the instruments. The instruments were administered, collected, and results tabulated by the second author. Students were asked to complete a general information questionnaire consisting of the demographic information summarized in Table 1. Finally, students were thanked for their participation and time was given to answering their questions.

RESULTS

High School Experience

The data in Table 2 shows that a high percentage of students indicated school personnel, relatives, and classmates had had a positive influence on them. The highest rated group among these was teachers. The school counselor group received the highest percentage of responses for being unhelpful.

TABLE 2

Helpfulness of Various Groups During High School

Group	Helpful/ Very Helpful	Neutral	Unhelpful/ Very Unhelpful
Teachers	86%	1%	7%
Counselors	79%	-	21%
Principal/Vice Principal	79%	21%	-
Parents and Relatives	79%	7%	14%
Classmates	71%	29%	-

Note: *n* = 14.

Students involved in the Youth Council indicated an increase in participation in different activities with an average of 2.2 in their senior year versus 1.0 and 1.6 in the two previous years. On the other hand, the number of days missed during the year declined with an average of 6 days in the senior year versus 9.4 and 8.8 in the two previous years.

On the open-ended measure of who contributed the most to students' success in staying in high school and/or graduating were family (7), school personnel (3), and friends (2). While academic, social, and family situations created the most difficulty for the participants, the parents, friends, and teachers provided the most help in resolving those difficulties. Six students (or 43%) had seriously considered dropping out but did not, crediting assistance from parents (4), counselors (2), determination (2), friends (1), and organized activities (1).

Overall, 11 students rated their high school experience as positive. Two indicated a neutral response and one said their overall experience was negative.

LULAC Youth Council Experience

The amount of time that the participants had spent at the designated high school (with number of students in parentheses) was: less than 1 year (3), 1-2 years (3), 2-3 years (2), and all 3 years (6). Length of time involved with the LULAC Youth Council was: less than 1 year (5), 1-2 years (4), 2-3 years (1), and all 3 years)4). The small number of participants precluded meaningful correlational analyses among the variables.

The majority of participants indicated the reasons for joining the Youth Council were that it was expected to be fun (a positive experience) or that they wanted to join a club where they could feel comfortable. Some mentioned that their friends had encouraged them to join and that they could meet other people.

Table 3 reveals that the benefit from having joined the Youth Council was most strongly expressed in relation to getting along with other people and next in relation to grades. Respondents were split on whether joining the Youth Council had helped or had no effect on attendance and involvement with other activities. The overall rating of the Youth Council experience was unanimously positive.

TABLE 3

Effect of Youth Council Experience on Pro-Academic and Pro-Social Outcomes

	Effect of Youth Council Experience		
Outcome	Helped Alot/Some	No Effect	Hurt Some/Alot
Grades	62%	38%	-
Getting along with other people	79%	14%	7%
Involvement with other activities[a]	43%	57%	-
School attendance	50%	43%	7%

Note: $n = 14$.

[a] $n = 13$, due to one nonresponse.

The final question, asking for open-ended comments about having joined the LULAC Youth Council, resulted in a consensus of responses. The majority stated that it helped them to feel more positive about themselves, that it was fun, and that it had a positive effect on their continuance in high school.

DISCUSSION

The results of this study provide a preliminary indication of the extent to which Hispanic youth's affiliation with a Hispanic youth organization positively influences pro-academic and pro-social behavior. Conclusions and implications must be tempered by the sample size and the fact that measures were of a self-report nature, without specific external or concurrent validating information.

The responses were extremely positive when the participants were asked about their overall feelings and/or thoughts regarding LULAC Youth Council affiliation. With a 100% response there is little doubt that affilation in this Youth Council has been an important factor in their lives.

As the Hispanic student experiences the support of other students participating in the Youth Council, they see themselves in a more positive way. The comments of the participants indicated that belonging to this group improved their self-esteem and enhanced their high school experience. This supports previous thinking that we have a need for affiliation and that this functions to motivate us (Maslow, 1954; Murray, 1938). We are social creatures who derive much of our satisfaction from other people (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1985).

LULAC Youth Councils appear to provide the sorely needed atmosphere which allows the Hispanic student to feel a part of the educational system and the community. Through this affiliation with the Youth Council, the Hispanic student can learn to be proud of their culture and at the same time be encouraged to be successful socially and academically even as they face unfamiliar experiences (Weiten, 1986).

Additional support for the affiliation need is indicated by the fact that every participant indicated a religious affiliation. Clearly, belonging to a group ranks high with these participants. Likewise, the respondents' indication of high identity with the Hispanic culture and relative lack of involvement with other school activities (Sheldon & Ramirez, 1987; Sue, 1981) suggests that a Hispanic organization is a viable mechanism for their affiliation needs. Being with other Hispanics seemed to facilitate the participants' involvement (Byrne, 1971).

Throughout this study data emerged supporting affiliation with a Youth Council as an important factor in influencing pro-academic and pro-social behavior, yet other factors appear to have a positive influence on the Hispanic student as well. For example, parents, friends, teachers, and counselors were all mentioned as having influenced continuance in high school.

An examination of absenteeism showed that the participants stabilized as they approached graduation. In other words, the amount of involvement with others and activities increased while the number of absences decreased. It could be inferred from this that affiliation has a positive effect on high school attendance, which could certainly have a positive influence on pro-academic behavior, and, in turn, retention.

In conclusion, affiliation appears to produce a positive pro-academic and pro-social influence on the Hispanic student. However, longitudinal research needs to be conducted to confirm the causality relationship between the variables. Further, comparisons between Hispanic Youth Council members and Hispanic students not belonging to a LULAC Youth Council could help determine more exactly the extent to which affiliation and non-affiliation with a Youth Council affects pro-academic and pro-social behavior.

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Comparison of Perceptions of Family Environments Between Gifted and Control Adolescents

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by Cynthia L. Baldwin, Ph.D.

INTRODUCTION

In the area of gifted education, the contributing factor of family environment to the academic success of gifted achievers over average students has been hypothesized but not adequately researched (Albert, 1978). Some studies have focused on case studies of gifted subjects using a historical perspective (e.g., Cox, 1977); longitudinal data collection (e.g., Terman, 1954); individual reports of family involvement (e.g., Weisberg & Springer, 1961); or the impact of ordinal family position in academic achievement (e.g., Breland, 1974; Cicirelli, 1976). In each of these studies, however, the perception of the family environment and its impact on academic success was not specifically addressed. Other bodies of research have focused on family characteristics of creative students rather than the population of academically successful students (e.g., Dewing & Taft, 1973). One study specifically dealing wit the importance of accurate offspring perceptions in parental transmission of educational goals dealt only with intact original families and failed to use instruments with previously confirmed reliability and content validity (Smith, 1982, 1984). However, implications from this research indicate that indeed there may be a relationship between the accuracy of offspring perceptions of parents' educational goals and offsprings' concordance to the goals of parents (Smith, 1982).

The intent of this study then was to investigate relationships between academic succes and a student's clear perceptions of parental goals. It was hypothesized that if different perceptions of the family environment exist between families of academically successful students compared to control families, perhaps counselors, parents and administrators could study information about successful dissemination of goals to enhance the potential for academic success in any family. With this in mind, a control population and gifted population of adolescents and their parents were enlisted to help determine 1) how the students differed from each other in their perceptions of their family environments and 2) how students differed from their parents in their perception of family environment.

METHOD

The primary instrument used in the measurement of perceptions was Form R of the Family Environment Scale (FES) (Moos, 1974). The FES was developed to gain a naturalistic understanding of social environments in families, and could be used to compare child and parent perceptions of family social environment

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dimensions of relationships, growth, and system maintenance. Among many other research uses, the FES has been used to compare the different socio-cultural environments of two-parent families to single-parent families and was able to sensitively describe variance in the social milieu (Reinhart, 1977). Therefore, it appeared that the FES provided potential for appropriate and interesting differentiation between academically successful families and a matching control group which in turn could be studied to clarify strategies in families that could enhance the potential of academic success.

Form R of the FES, which was used in this study, consists of 90 true-false items which are divided into 10 subscales: Cohesion, Expressiveness, Conflict, Independence, Achievement Orientation, Intellectual-Cultural Orientation, Active-Recreational Orientation, Moral-Religious Emphasis, Organization, and Control. These represent Relationship Dimensions, Personal Gowth Dimensions and System Maintenance Dimensions. The Family Incongruence Score, which is the absolute difference between parent and child scores on the 10 subscales, was also used to gauge differences in family perceptions. Moos (1974) shows test-retest reliability and stability falling within an acceptable range of .68 to .86 on the ten subscores with two-month to twelve-month retesting. Internal consistency ranged from .64 to .78 and there were only weak intercorrelations between the subscales, indicating that the subscales measure distinct though somewhat related aspects of family social environments.

Form R of the FES and demographic questions were sent to 75 gifted adolescents in their junior year and a parent of the gifted adolescent. In an earlier study with perceptions of families of gifted adolescents, differences between fathers and mothers on the FES were nonsignificant on any of the subscales (Tabackman, 1976), therefore only one parent was asked to complete the forms. Attempts were made to describe variations of the socioeconomic status of the families using the Duncan Socioeconomic Index (cf. Mueller & Parcell, 1981), however, this did not differentiate clearly the socioeconomic patterns in Wyoming. The same forms were distributed to 75 randomly selected adolescents (from the same schools) and their parents. The control adolescents were randomly chosen by high school counselors who were instructed on how to randomly choose a student from their junior class roster. Once the selection process was complete, the students were asked if they and one of their parents would be willing to participate in the study. Out of 300 potential participants, completed and useable forms were returned from 60 gifted adolescents, 60 parents of gifted adolescents, 40 control adolescents and 40 control parents, making a total sample size of 200 participants. The rate of return for the gifted pairs was 80% and 53% for the control group.

PARTICIPANTS

The students chosen for this study were Wyoming students, 48% male, 52% female (mean age = 16.5), who were in their junior year of high school. The gifted students were those who had been selected to attend the 1985 High School Institute (HSI) at the University of Wyoming. While the label "gifted" was avoided in the competitive recruitment of these HSI students and "high potential" was used instead, the mean grade point average of these students who participated in the study was 3.75 and the selection was based on a combination of creativity, outstanding achievement, interest and potential. The resultant group was one which fits Renzulli's (1978) triadic model of giftedness. The control group was matched to the gifted group by sex, geographic location, school and age and randomly chosen by high school counselors in school districts throughout Wyoming.

PROCEDURES

The FES data collected from the parent/adolescent combinations of gifted and control subjects was analyzed using a two-way ANOVA. Significance was set to be $p < .05$ as is used in comparable studies on family perceptions. Adolescent or parent status (called AGE) was crossed with gifted or control status (called TYPE) and examined with families nested in TYPE crossing AGE. A dependent t-test was also run for TYPE by families to compare the incongruence score of the gifted families to the control families. Smaller means indicate more congruence between parent and adolescent perceptions (Moos, 1974). Additionally, stepwise multiple regressions using certain independent variables were run to predict group TYPE as either gifted and control.

RESULTS

A series of two-way ANOVAs (TYPE X AGE) were performed, one for each of the 10 subtest of the FES. Each of those dependent variables were tested for a Main Effect for TYPE (gifted versus control), a Main Effect for AGE (parent versus adolescent), and a TYPE X AGE interaction. Typically there was a Main Effect for AGE except for Independence, Achievement, and Control variables. For five of the cases where there was a Main Effect — Cohesion, Expressiveness, Intellectual-Cultural Orientation, Moral/Religious, Organization — parents had higher scores than the adolescents. In two other Main Effect variables, Conflict and Active Recreational — parents perceived less conflict and less participation in social and recreational activities than did the adolescents. In no case was there an interaction between TYPE and AGE, which implies differences between Gifted and Control were the same between adolescents and parents, or the parent-child pattern was the same for both gifted and contol.

In general, there was no Main Effect for TYPE (gifted versus control) with the exception of the Cultural-Orientation variable. In that case, the gifted were significantly higher in their cultural orientation than the control group — both for parents and adolescents. Additionally, the dependent t-test failed to show significance on the incongruence score. Several explanations could be proffered for the lack of significant differences between the perceptions of the family environment of gifted adolescents and control adolescents. One very plausable explanation is that the control population may not have been truly random. Although counselors were directed how to choose randomly a participant from all available students on the Junior class list from their school, they may have chosen the most convenient junior student to participate — thereby reducing their need for further involvement in the study. The fact that eight out of forty of the randomly chosen adolescents had GPA's of 3.75 or better lends support to the nonrandomness of the selection.

Three different multiple step-wise regressions were run to predict membership type. The empirical order of predictors (see Table 1) placed the education level of the father as the most predictive, with gifted adolescents having higher-educated fathers than the control adolescents. Grade Point Average (GPA) was logically a good predictor of membership, with gifted students averaging higher

TABLE 3

Forced-order Predictors of Group TYPE (NEW Gifted vs. NEW Control) Using Grade Point Average as Primary Predictor

Step	Predictor Entered	Contribution to R² (as %)	R² (as%) at this Step
1	Grade Point Average	33.3	33.3
2	Father's Education Level	4.8	38.1
3	Age of Parents	1.9	40.0
4	Sibling Position	1.7	41.7
5	Number Years in Community	1.3	43.0
6	Marital Status of Parents	1.6	44.6

DISCUSSION

Some interesting patterns emerged from this study. One pattern, that of parents perceiving their family environment differently than their adolescents, is so fundamental as to be easily overlooked. Parents perceived more cohesion, more open expression of feelings, more interest in political, social, intellectual and cultural activities, more emphasis on ethical and religious issues and values, and more emphasis on family organization and responsibilities than did their adolescents. It behooves us to remember that adolescents from any environment have a perspective which is colored by their age, peers, experience and development. Not only is it important to remember this with research results, it must be taken into consideration when hearing students and/or their parents discuss their homelife. While research on gifted adolescents has shown that they as a group tend to be more sensitive to their environment than their nongifted peers (Webb, Meckstroth, & Tolan, 1982), their perspective is still only one view of the family environment.

Although the family is a system whose environment cannot be understood by examining just one piece, such as the giftedness of one of the members, the predictors did yield some clues about the differences between families. The gifted families (both parent and adolescent) perceived their environment to be significantly more involved with cultural and intellectual activities than control families. The gifted families tended to be smaller, with older parents who have been married slightly longer and with a more highly-educated father than the control families. (It is interesting to note that the education level of the mothers was remarkably similar for both the gifted and control groups. This could be a cultural idiosyncrasy of Wyoming). It should come as no surprise to us as educators that stable families with fewer children, longer residency in the community and with better educated parents are more likely to be gifted. What we do not know yet are strategies to help those other students overcome the effects of instability. Future research with a more dichotomous population or truly random control group would be useful in pinpointing more specifically what areas distinguish high-potential gifted from high-potential underachievers. But the most important work can be done directly with the students, their families and the behaviors that can be linked to a more successful academic orientation.

than the control adolescents. Sibling position was also a good predictor of membership, with gifted students more likely to be the oldest or only child and the control student more likely to be a middle or youngest child. Also, gifted students tend to have older parents and to be from single or remarried families more frequently than the control students.

TABLE 1

Empirically-ordered Predictors of Group TYPE (Gifted vs. Control) Generated by a Multiple Stepwise Regression

Step	Predictor Entered	Contribution to R^2 (as %)	R^2 (as%) at this Step
1	Father's Education Level	5.9	5.9
2	Grade Point Average	5.9	11.8
3	Age of Parents	4.1	15.9
4	Sibling Position	2.4	18.3
5	Marital Status of Parents	1.8	20.1

A second multiple step-wise regression was run which forced GPA as the primary predictor and eliminated the predictors of age (since students were all between 14 and 16) and sex (since the population was almost equally divided between male and female respondents) (see Table 2). In this regression analysis, father's education level, the age of the parent, and sibling position remained important predictors although the order of importance varied.

TABLE 2

Forced-order Predictors of Group TYPE (Gifted vs. Control) Using Grade Point Average as Primary Predictor

Step	Predictor Entered	Contribution to R^2 (as %)	R^2 (as%) at this Step
1	Grade Point Average	5.9	5.8
2	Father's Education Level	6.0	11.9
3	Age of Parents	4.1	16.0
4	Sibling Position	2.4	18.4
5	Marital Status of Parents	1.3	19.7
6	Number Years in Community	1.3	21.0

A third multiple step-wise regression was run similar to the second except the two populations were made more specifically dichotomous. Only gifted students with GPA's of 3.75 and greater were used in the gifted group and only control students with GPA's of less than 3.75 were used in the control group, which naturally reduced the sample size. This procedure was done to determine whether predictors may be ordered differently if the groups were more sharply delineated. However, as Table 3 shows, the predictors which appeared in Tables 1 and 2 appeared again although the order varied.

CONCLUSION

While the study did highlight predictors which differentiated between family characteristics and differences between parents and children, it failed to capture significant differences between the gifted and control adolescents. The lack of a true dichotomous population could have played a large part in clouding these differences. However, one can not deny the possibility that the study did not pick up differences in perceptions of control and gifted perceptions simply because — other than the Intellectual-Cultural Orientation (which is highly significant in gifted families) — gifted adolescents come from the whole gambit of family environments, just as the control adolescents do. What is important to remember is that the gifted students tend to come from environments perceived as more stable with more cultural and intellectual orientation. This information could be an important link in program development, parenting classes and curriculum design to develop strategies for enhancing the academic success potential of all adolescents.

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College Student Personnel Administration: One Model's Follow-Up Study

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by David A. McKelfresh, Ph.D. and Mark F. Creamer

BACKGROUND

Graduate preparation programs in student affairs have been the subject of increased interest in the past several years. Much of the literature has dealt with preparation programs in general. Authors have addressed specific degree levels (Tracy, 1971; Rocky, 1972; Ostroh, 1975; and Rodgers, 1976), special program components (Morris, 1953; Houtz, 1967, McDaniel, 1972; Hess, 1973; Barnard, 1974; and Domeier, 1977), and what should or should not be in graduate programs (Cross, 1981; Knock, 1977; Miller and Carpenter, 1980; and Sandeen, 1982).

The number of preparation programs has increased dramatically in the past two decades. The *Directory of Preparation Programs in College Student Personnel, 1968-69* published by the American College Personnel Association listed 74 institutions with graduate-level preparation programs in college student personnel administration. In 1987, nineteen years later, the *Directory* listed 151 programs, more than a 100% increase.

Although the importance of program design, preparation program evaluation and placement of entry-level professionals in student affairs has been emphasized (Greenleaf, 1982), little has recently been written about program placement efforts, and few preparation programs have followed and chronicled the progress of their graduates.

DESCRIPTION OF PROGRAM

Since 1967 the College Student Personnel Administration (CSPA) graduate program at Colorado State University has been the only Colorado program which specifically prepares student affairs administrators at the masters level. The two-year graduate program, based in the School of Occupational and Educational Studies, is designed for students seeking careers in administration of student affairs within colleges, universities, community colleges, technical and occupational centers, and private postsecondary institutions (Feller, 1989). The program, in which only 30% of the applicants are accepted annually, has significant minority student and faculty involvement and follows the model recently developed by the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs (1986). The program model includes:

- Classes in student personnel services, higher education administration, campus ecology, student development theory, and counseling.

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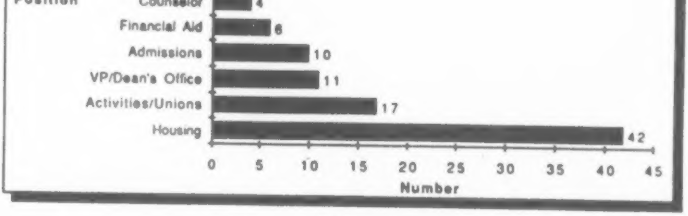
- Seminars concerning legal implications, management, and current trends in the field.
- Workshops in admission, career services, designing and facilitating workshops, financial aid, housing and auxiliary services, institutional diversity, student union administration, today's college student, and balancing professional lifestyles.
- Practica in student affairs departments within a higher education setting.
- Elective work in supportive fields.
- Thesis or position paper.

The CSPA program currently lists 23 faculty of which 43% are women, 4% are Black, 9% are Hispanic, and 4% are Asian (Feller, 1989). The program enjoys a unique and collaborative relationship with the Office of the Vice President for Student Affairs which provides graduate assistantships in student affairs. According to Feller (1989) ''CSU's program has been a model for others to follow when it comes to emphasizing administration, a strong experiential component, and a deemphasis of counselor education (pg. 6).''

COLORADO STATE'S CSPA GRADUATES

The Colorado State CSPA program has developed its national reputation, in part, as a result of its 95% placement rate (Phillips, 1986). A follow-up study of graduates (Creamer, 1988) indicates that there are at least 122 graduates serving as student affairs administrators within 67 institutions of higher education in 30 states. While most graduates receive multiple job offers, graduates are currently employed in the following areas of student affairs adminstration in higher education: housing and food services, student unions, student activities, admissions, financial aid, career placement, counseling center, Black student services, Asian-American student services, research, dean of students, and mountain campus administration. The number of alumni in current positions can be seen more clearly in chart number one.

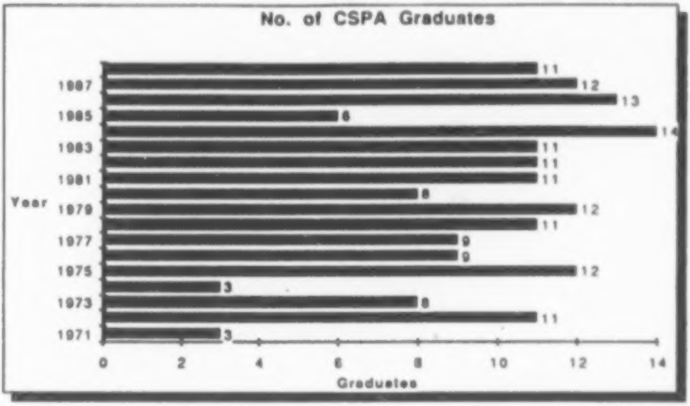
CHART 1



A number of CSPA alumni report employment in positions outside of higher education. A total of 55 alumni are currently working in business, government, human services or education in a variety of adminstration positions.

Since 1975 an average of 11 students per year have graduated from the CSPA program (see chart number two). Nationally, the percentage of women (66%) graduating from masters preparation programs is higher than the number of men (33%). Colorado State's program is representative of these figures with 89 male graduates and 127 female graduates.

CHART 2



FEEDBACK

Colorado State's degree program in College Student Personnel Administration offers students a wide range of practical experiences. Through assistantships, practica, independent studies, classroom discussion and various opportunities to deliver presentations, students acquire the practical and theoretical knowledge required for success.

Students currently enrolled in the CSPA program were asked to describe what they viewed as the program's greatest strengths (Creamer, 1989). One common response to the question addressed the flexibility of experiences available to each student, depending upon their own needs. Since there is not a Ph.D. program in student affairs at Colorado State, there is considerable agreement that the focus on the masters student is a critical success variable in the model.

A summary of the most common responses to the question regarding Colorado State's CSPA program strengths follows:

- Courses are taught by instructors currently working in the field,
- Hands-on practical experience,
- The ability to develop close relationships with professional colleagues and professors,
- The high level of responsibility required within assistantships,
- The network of professionals within the field available on one campus.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this "follow-up" was to chronicle the progress of the graduates and reflect on the programmatic model used within the Colorado State University CSPA program. The information presents a positive picture of the program's current efforts and lays the groundwork for an optimistic view of the model in training student affairs administrators for the changing times anticipated in higher education. Students have been very successful in finding employment, many receive multiple offers for positions in student affairs. Graduates have fared well in administrative positions in higher education as well as administrative positions in the private sector. Alumni recommend the program to colleagues and prospective students. Current students view the program positively and with a strong sense of pride. Overall, the process of "taking stock" of the CSPA program's efforts in this very specific area has been an important and helpful endeavor for those charged with the charting the course for the coming years. The model is offered to encourage other programs completing a self-study or evaluation to consider the values displayed in the Colorado State effort.

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BOOK REVIEW

The Empowered Manager: Positive Political Skills At Work

by Peter Block
Published by Jossey-Bass
Reviewed by Michelle Bartley Taylor

Peter Block shows in *The Empowered Manager* that the answers to the hardest questions are merely common sense. The business world has continually built and expanded the monster known as BUREAUCRACY despite its own disapproval of the phenomenon. Block teaches in layman's terms how each person in an organization has the means to break down and destroy this bureaucratic monster.

The author moves away from bureaucratic lifestyles into a realm of entrepreneurial spirit, a direction he feels will save the business world from its demise. Managers should learn how to run their own unit as though they were the top executive and turn it into the environment that they foresee as the desired outcome for the entire organization. Treating other departments and suppliers as customers rather than competing against them will ensure departmental and company wide success. Although the longterm goal may be for all departments in a company to eventually act in such a fashion, change can only begin in one area. Empowered managers should first concentrate on developing their own units before corporate wide changes can be made. The direction and culture of an organization has traditionally been created and passed down from the top executives. Block suggests replacement of this process by beginning the creation at the bottom and in the middle. He notes that even though the handed down structure exists, more frequently than not "the inmates run the prison."

The second major theme incorporated in the book is the practice of positive politics. Though the word carries a negative connotation in today's language, the author shows that one can be political without being manipulative. In lieu of depending on negative politics to accomplish tasks, Block focuses on an independent state where one learns to be straightforward and outwardly political. Today many negative political tactics are used in daily operations. Subordinates employ such tactics as downplaying potential problems to appease their supervisors. These "people pleasers" are seemingly optimistic despite their own assessment of the situation. Block advocates assertive political behavior and criticizes aggressive and non-assertive political behavior.

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One of the first steps in creating a more favorable workplace is building one's own autonomy. In order to succeed, one must transgress from the "blame" syndrome where the mysterious "they" are the problem creators, project inhibitors, and creativity stiflers. Block points out, "Organizational politics as we know it works against people taking responsibility." The focus needs to be directed towards the "us" mentality where "employees (need) to personally take responsibility for the success of the business."

The Empowered Manager was written specifically for managers looking to change and strengthen their own organizations, and for those who are entrepreneurs at heart but have become bound by three-piece bureaucratic suits. Yet Block's advice is so universal, he speaks to all managers or supervisors within and outside of business as he provides specific strategies for making general tasks run smoother. At the heart of the book are guidelines geared towards creating a more honest, direct, successful person.

An empowered manager has learned how to use positive politics and an entrepreneurial spirit to drain the "bureaucratic sea where the predominant concerns are safety, advancement, control and the desire to hold someone else responsible for what is happening."

The Empowered Manager: Positive Political Skills at Work could be a bible to people in management positions, including those professionals working in the Student Affairs arena. We can all benefit from the insight and prescriptions provided for us by Peter Block.

BOOK REVIEW

The Addictive Organization

by Anne Wilson Schaef and Diane Fassel
Published by Harper & Row
Reviewed by Nathalie Kees & Janet Trever

Reading *The Addictive Organization* is an invitation to re-examine the work environments you've experienced with a new type of magnifying glass, a different colored lens. The result may include light bulbs going off with insights, new puzzles unearthed, and surprising parallels being drawn from their examples.

Schaef and Fassel describe four major forms of addiction in organizations. The first is when key persons in the organization are active addicts. As a result, the system functions much as a chemically dependent family with the three primary symptoms of denial and dishonesty, dualistic or black and white thinking, and paramount control issues.

In the second form of addiction, members of the organization bring to the system their Adult Children of Alcoholics and/or Co-dependent behaviors. The third area that Schaef and Fassel examine is when the organization becomes the addictive substance. Work and the system itself become "the fix" for the millions of workaholics in our society. The authors were amazed at the lack of research and studies presently available on this problem.

The final form of addiction describes the organization as an addict. Schaef and Fassel see the organization as a hologram being greater than the sum of its parts. As we try to treat the system we need to look beyond the individuals and effect the denial, dishonesty, and control mechanisms of the organization as a whole. Using these terms to describe an organization and suggesting a needed paradigm shift in viewing present problems is perhaps the most significant contribution of the book.

The authors provide important suggestions for consultants: being acutely award of their role in the addictive system and their own possible tendencies to become enmeshed and entangled, to rescue the organization as "the problem solver." The best role of the consultant is to empower the members of the organization to accept responsibility for their own recovery. When working with any type of organization, Fassel and Schaef warn that we must stop treating the symptoms through endless seminars and workshops that may perpetuate the addictive patterns (i.e., time management workshops for a group of workaholics). The sickness of the system rather than the symptoms must be the focus of treatment.

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Lack of details concerning intervention, treatment, and recovery is where the book falls short. Hopefully this will be the topic of their next book. There is also a tendency, while reading *The Addictive Organization*, to feel that *all* behavior is addictive. The authors need to define more fully: what is a healthy organization, and what is healthy behavior in the workplace?

The Addictive Organization provides another important point for female employees and consultants who have fruitlessly tried to change the atmosphere of their work settings. Perhaps as good co-dependents they've taken it on as a challenge similar to picking a sow's ear based on the promise it shows, and then trying to create the proverbial silk purse. They only frustrate the pig and themselves.

We highly recommend this book to anyone wanting to better understand the organizational systems they are involved with. Schaef and Fassel have taken a major step toward awareness of dysfunction and new possibilities for our organizations and work settings.

BOOK REVIEW

Breaking Into The Boardroom

by Jinx Melia

Published by G.P. Putnam's Sons

Reviewed by Emily Langdon

Breaking Into The Boardroom by Jinx Melia addresses conflicts women face when they enter the "Male Dominate System." Melia traces male and female roles back to survivalist tendencies formed during prehistoric times revolving around the "bearfight." Formerly focused on food, shelter and protection, the bearfight is applied to the business world.

Physically disadvantaged by weakness or pregnancy, women were no match for bears, thus creating the "first political system" based on self-protection. In this system, women controlled the limited environment of the cave. They bartered for protection from the bears with men by trading abilities to cook, bear children, and have sex. They also avoided threatening elements, like other women luring away their protector.

Males fought the bears, a phenomenon Melia attributes to hormones. Men soon learned it was safer to fight in groups; this fostered cooperation among themselves while women learned competition between each other over men. During the bear fight, men tested each other to develop trust. Melia calls this period of testing and trusting the ancient ancestor of the "quid pro quo of modern diplomacy."

The concept of the bear/protector/female triangle runs throughout the book as the author applies it to the present-day business world. Since women were left out of the bear hunt experience, they failed to learn rules which bearfighters now apply to professional arenas. Women are also excluded from the bonding and trust that forms between male bear fighters.

In the popular comic strip *Calvin and Hobbes* by Watterson, Calvin once asked Hobbes why they don't play peace instead of war; Hobbes' reply was, "Not enough role models." Women in power have the same problem. Melia puts famous females on the spot. Geraldine Ferraro is mentioned under the section titled "Serving at the Whim of Benefactors;" benefactors being men who raise little-known women to power only to let them fall by the wayside when they have served their purpose. Other women learn to operate within the Male Dominate System, often as safe second-in-commands less likely to challenge the leader than ambitious male subordinates.

Melia claims women are used to independence, not trusting other women, or men. In contrast, men are team players, learning early that working with

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other men makes the bear fight less dangerous. Men cooperate if they see an opportunity to benefit from such behavior. Women do not understand the concept and are often excluded from the team because they don't know how to play.

Melia devotes one chapter to the sexual energy involved any time men and women are within close proximity. It is biological and cannot be ignored. From sex, men learn risk. For sexual intercourse to occur, a male must maintain an erection and perform. The female must simply be present. Male genitals are exposed whereas the female's are protected safely inside the body. These physical realities become the base of the political system. Women have a totally separate experience and therefore do not understand male biases. Risking is equated with being male. Women want to feel safe and not take risks; but for men, the biggest mistake is to avoid the challenge. The risk men learn to value is applied to their career.

Trust as well as risk is misunderstood by women. Trust is earned by men, after a testing period; Melia believes that it is given perfunctorily by women until proven wrong, much to their dismay.

Breaking Into The Boardroom cleverly outlines the history of conflict between men and women consistently using the parable of the bearfight. Bearfighting is equated with football which is equated with the Male Dominate System and the three are employed to show how men work together and why women do not function within these frameworks.

Challenging the justice of the Male Dominant System, Melia raises questions and tempers, but she does not channel this energy constructively. The closing comments ring of optimism but offer few concrete ideas as to how women will accomplish such feats: ". . . women will begin to perceive themselves as savvy powerful individuals with female orientations, with womanly goals, with new feminine roles which have far more to do with priorities than with social approval." (p. 156).

One tangible tip Melia includes is training women to learn male skills. Men have successfully incorporated female nurturing skills into the management world. Recently, women were told to reject traditional female roles, but they were not taught traditional male roles; they were sent into the business world unarmed and unprotected. She suggests that women need to understand concepts like teamplay and negotiation before they can successfully enter that realm.

Melia optimistically states that increasing numbers of women are becoming "significant,' and doing so "Not on male terms. Not necessarily in the Male Dominant System. Not necessarily apart from it." This causes the reader to wonder how then women are becoming significant.

Some inconsistencies in her preaching exist. For example, Melia refers to "Geisha Training," which she defines as women who ". . . effectively utilize their 'wiles' in the boardroom without sleeping around," (p. 157). Does this sound like training a woman to become significant "on her own terms" or "in a womanly fashion?"

Melia's extremely naive summary insists that powerful women can change the world. "Women, as a sex, do have a better understanding than men of what is important in life." Important women are desperately needed in the areas of psychiatric care, crime prevention, education, and politics, just to name a few. Since women concentrate less on wealth they might not make quite as much of a salary as men but they would show more compassion and obviously make the world a better place to live, overnight.

GUIDELINES FOR AUTHORS

The Colorado Association for Counseling and Development invites articles for publication in its journal *Awareness*. The deadline for submission of articles is February 1 of each year. Articles should be sent to:

Rich Feller, Associate Professor
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It is important that the journal represent all divisions of CACD and members are encouraged to submit articles about their work, research, and thought-provoking challenges to the profession.

In addition, photos are needed for the journal cover for each issue. Please send any photos which you believe would be appropriate. Although no honorarium can be paid, proper credit will be given to each photographer whose work is published.

Typing and Other Requirements

1. Send the original manuscript ***and*** two clear copies. The original should be typed on 8½ x 11 nontranslucent white bond. Do not use onionskin or erasable bond.
2. Attach a cover page which provides:
    - title of the article
    - name of the author(s)
    - author's position and place of employment
    - author's address and phone number(s)
3. Style and format should follow the 1988 edition of the ***American Pyschological Association Publication Manual.***
4. Include an abstract, not to exceed 50 words.
5. Use non-sexist language throughout.
6. Never submit a manuscript which is under consideration by another publication.

Upon publication, each author will receive two personal copies of the journal.

Note: Authors bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures.

The Journal of the Colorado Association
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An Annual Publication of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development

FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

While the subtle change in the logo of this month's *LIFE* magazine may gain your attention, changes within this issue of the *Journal* are much more noticeable. Most notable is the page and print size. With printing costs continuing to increase, we've switched to a format that allows us to bring readers more articles within a stable budget. Print size may also be easier on the avid reader.

Our cover page attempts to fully engage busy counselors. While we're convinced the wide range of articles offer an attractive menu, this format appears more enticing. Inside you'll find an expanded set of *Guidelines for Authors* which clarifies questions often forwarded to the Editor. The few available spaces on the back cover and column inches within short articles include messages critical to the continued growth of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development.

The most important change comes within the Editorial Board. As the *Journal* receives an increasing number of manuscripts, interest in providing expanded feedback and support to authors requires involving the expertise of additional CACD members. We are especially proud to welcome five new editorial board members. In introducing them, you'll find names which have made significant impact within the Colorado counseling community in numerous and diverse ways.

Martelle Chapital, Program Manager of Guidance, Placement, Corrections and Community Based Organizations within the Colorado Community College and Occupational Education System, is the most visible counselor advocate within Colorado's state education agencies. Martelle continually keeps us abreast of statewide and legislative efforts impacting counseling.

Joe Daly, Professor of Counselor Education at Colorado State University, takes on additional editorial responsibilities as Associate Editor. Beyond Joe's perspective as a counselor trainer, he adds a critical perspective as a school board President and research statistician.

Rex Filer, a relatively new Assistant Professor of Counselor Education at Adams State College, has already made significant professional contributions to CACD and serves as President-Elect of the Colorado Association for Counselor Education and Supervision. As 1990 Convention Program Coordinator, we'll count on Rex to lead authors to the *Journal*.

Shirley Gwinn Coffman, a secondary counselor from Thompson Valley High School, offers a special appreciation for adolescent development evidenced by her fine article *Adolescents and Anger: The Effect of Family Structure* which appeared in the Spring 1989 issue. As a representative to the Colorado School Counselors Association, Shirley's feedback is especially important and valued.

Andy Helwig, Associate Professor of Counseling and Personnel Services at the University of Colorado at Denver, is established nationally with a fine record of writing and leadership within the American Association for Counseling and Development. In addition to his national perspective, Andy's reviews are as thorough as one can receive.

Colorado's counselors and CACD are fortunate to have such a dedicated group of professionals supporting them. Please take time to compliment them in their commitment to make Colorado's *Journal* a continually improving and responsive vehicle of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development.

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THE JOURNAL OF THE COLORADO ASSOCIATION FOR COUNSELING AND DEVELOPMENT

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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR AND THE ABUSED CHILD

by Kathleen M. Galloway

Abstract

An elementary school counselor can play a major role in helping an abused child. To do so, the school counselor should become knowledgeable in prevention strategies, the Child Protection Act, and intervention techniques. By doing so, abused children will be identified sooner and be able to receive the guidance and help needed. This paper focuses on these areas and provides strategies to help break the cycle of abuse.

Child abuse whether it be physical, sexual, emotional, or neglect is no longer seldom reported. Recent statistics show that approximately two million American children are abused or neglected each year. Of these reported cases, one in four girls and one in ten boys are sexually molested before the age of eighteen (Holtgraves, 1986). To adequately deal with child abuse, it is necessary for elementary school counselors to become knowledgeable in prevention strategies, the law, and intervention techniques.

Physical abuse, physical neglect, emotional maltreatment, and sexual abuse involve children and parents (or caretakers) of all ages, races, ethnic backgrounds and religions. According to Schafer (1989), one-third of all individuals who were themselves physically abused, sexually abused, or extremely neglected as children will subject their offspring to one of these forms of maltreatment. Being abused as a child puts one at risk of becoming an abusive parent or caretaker. Besides having a history of abuse, other indicators of potential abusers include having poor impulse control, poor coping skills, no support system, and/or a history of alcohol or substance abuse. If high stress factors such as unemployment, financial problems, changes in family structure due to death or divorce, and/or feelings of rejection are added to the above characteristics or situations, then even abused parents who try not to inflict abuse on their child may find no other way to cope but to continue the cycle (Schafer, 1989). "Children who can't protect themselves from their parents' abuse end up identifying with their parent. They incorporate these values into their own personality. By accepting this value, they see abusive behavior as one way to solve the problem" (Schafer, 1989, p.8). In order to break this cycle, the goal of an elementary school counselor needs to be early intervention especially since the latest research claims that girls sexually abused before the age of nine are more likely to show severe psychological impairment than those abused at a later age (Nash 1989). Nash (1989) showed that 50% of the children abused before the age of nine experienced depression, disturbed cognition, and a damaged self- image.

Prevention Strategies

One early intervention strategy a counselor can use is the education of children to avoid potentially threatening situations. This can be accomplished through the use of prevention programs and educating the staff and parents about child abuse and the law regarding child abuse.

An elementary school counselor can purchase excellent child abuse prevention material through *Kidsrights*, a catalogue containing several useful resources. There is also a list of resources in the 1988 *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling* journal. Carlson (1988) lists *The Body Rights Kit* by Dorothy Chatman, Kristin Baird, and Marilyn Kile (1986). *The Body Rights Kit* is designed for children three to seven years of age and lists nine objectives for the program including learning names of body parts, types of touches, ways to say "no" to adults, and safety rules. When looking for an appropriate prevention program, the program should include the following components: awareness of body parts and touches, decision-making (coping) strategies, assertive communication skills, and resources that can offer help (Vernon & Hay, 1988). With the use of prevention programs, perhaps more children will come forward if abused, and those children not abused will have the necessary strategies to confront potential abusers.

Educating School Staff and Parents

According to the School's Role in the Prevention/Intervention of Child Abuse and Neglect in *A Handbook for School Personnel* (1988), a school district needs to "provide district teachers with a periodic inservice program" which includes information of the Child Protection Act of 1987, instruction designed to assist teachers in recognizing child abuse or neglect, instruction designed to provide teachers with information on how to report suspected incidents of child abuse and neglect, and information on how to assist the child victim and family. Also a parent inservice on child abuse will increase their awareness of the problem and dangers. These inservices can be conducted by the school counselor.

The Law

One issue that should be explained during these inservices is the Child Protection Act. According to the law, any school official or employee who has reasonable cause

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to suspect child abuse or neglect is mandated to report or cause a report to be made to the County Department or Local Law Enforcement Agency. Any person who has reasonable cause and does not report is committing a class misdemeanor. Once child abuse is suspected or known, the next step is to immediately report the abuse by contacting the county department of the local law enforcement agency. When calling in a child abuse report, give the child's name, age and address, present location of the child, the parents' names and addresses, the nature and extent of injury or condition observed, and give your name and location and any other pertinent information. Your name will not be used when an investigation is made into your report.

After the initial verbal report, the reporting person is required by law to follow-up a verbal report of suspected abuse with a written report within 48 hours. In some cases, the school principal wants to be notified of the reporting and may decide it is not necessary. Remember you are responsible by law to report if there is any reasonable cause to know or suspect a child has been subjected to abuse or neglect. The law states that any person participating in good faith in the making of a report is immune from liability, civil or criminal, or termination of employment.

Identifying Abused Victims

The school staff needs to also be aware of the behavioral and physical indicators related to child abuse victims. This awareness should help the staff with identifying abused children. Some behavioral symptoms related to child abuse victims include:

1. Self-defeating statements
2. An extreme need for attention
3. Overly aggressive or withdrawn behavior
4. Depression
5. Low self-esteem

Some examples of physical indicators are:

1. Bruises, burns, abrasions, lacerations, swelling caused by other than accidental means
2. Belt buckle marks, handprints, bite marks and pinches
3. A history of recurring injuries
4. Unexplained injuries; conflicting explanations on reason for injury
5. Very young children with injuries on back of the body

Teachers and the Abused Child

Classroom strategies should be provided to teachers working with abused children. Such strategies include offering security, structure, identity, consistency, a sense of belonging, appropriate intimacy (such as eye contact and self-disclosure), and approval. Also include strategies for enhancing positive self-esteem and showing support for the family (Sandau-Christopher, 1988). Teachers and staff need to also be aware of the confidentiality rights of the child. When informed that an abused child has been enrolled in a teacher's classroom, the teacher needs to know that the information received on that child is confidential. The only time that confidentiality can be broken is if there is reasonable cause that the child is being harmed or is harming his or herself.

Intervention Techniques

After the initial identifying and reporting of abuse, the counselor must be willing to follow through with intervention. Interventions should not focus solely on the abused child. The family and the child are both affected. Counselors can work with the family by providing accurate information regarding the actual abuse and reporting, expressing faith in the parents' ability to cope with the situation, pointing out steps the family has already taken, helping the parent reassure the child, and teaching parents how to teach their child self-protection skills (Sandau-Christopher, 1988).

The school counselor, when working with an abused child, needs to instill in the child that he or she is still a worthwhile person. According to Schafer (1980), abused children are criticized so often, they feel it is their own fault. Because of this feeling, all victims need continual reminders that the abuse was not their fault. Holtgraves (1986) claims that whether it is the perpetrator or the abused child removed from the home, the victim will need support and encouragement from the counselor in coping with the feelings created by these changes.

During the initial meeting with the abused child, the counselor needs to build a trusting relationship. According to Holtgraves (1986), the counselor, by being mentally and physically available, attentive, and verbalizing the idea of being there when the child needs to talk, can help these victims express their thoughts, feelings and reactions. A trusting relationship can be established by the counselor using such techniques as empathy, mirroring, and reflecting the child's actions. Negative statements about the situation or the perpetrator should be avoided. In fact, according to Vernon & Hay (1988), "some emphasis on the worth of the offender is also important, the perpetrator is usually a confused person with problems. This understanding may help children deal with their own confused or negative feelings toward the offender in a more realistic way, especially if the offender is a significant other" (p. 308). Once a trusting relationship has been established, feelings and other issues can be brought out openly. The child should not be forced to discuss the events and feelings, instead a tentative exploration approach should be used. With children in the primary grades, use of play media, puppets, or art materials are more appropriate vehicles of expression. With children in the intermediate elementary grades, feelings games, journal or letter writing, and role playing can be utilized.

The next step is building positive self-esteem. According to Vernon & Hay (1988), children will find it easier to stand up to others if they feel good about themselves. School counselors and teachers should provide opportunities for the child to feel successful. One technique that provides the abused child with a feeling of accomplishment and at the same time helps them look beyond themselves and their problem is through tutoring younger children. This technique works well with abused children nine and older. These children can spend part of their school day helping younger children with their school work. When the abused

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GUIDING COLLEGE SELECTION

by Richard T. (Tim) Lageose

Abstract

High school counselors have restricted time to meet the increasing demand of helping college-bound students understand how to select a college. With a responsibility to serve hundreds of students, the counselor must go beyond the traditional individual counseling philosophy. A counselor, as a facilitator using team strategies, can fulfill student needs.

Throughout the years, college selection has become an increasingly important matter for high school students. Besides being a major financial expenditure for the student and parents, the attended college can influence the success in post high school work, what is available to study, and many times, if the student will graduate from the school (Matthay, 1989). The student's professional and personal development can also be influenced by the college environment. Therefore, all students need to know as much as they can about college selection in order to make a better decision where to go to college.

Unfortunately, minimal personalized help exists for the vast majority of students in high school. Although school counselors recognize that college selection information in high school is vitally important, the student still lacks needed guidance. In a survey of over 76,900 high school students, Kerr and Colangelo (1988) found more than half of the students, regardless of ability level, stated they needed help with college educational goals. Matthay (1989) also indicated that one half of the students interviewed in a Carnegie Foundation Study expressed a need for college selection help.

One major problem that perpetuates this situation is that counselors are responsible for many more students than they can individually serve. Executive Director Frank Burtnett of the National Association of College Admission Counselors reported that high school counselors typically have 400 students assigned to them. Unfortunately, in some urban public schools, the ratios are higher, in excess of 1,000 to 1 (Gallagher, 1987). The counselor simply has little time to devote to any one student, let alone a population of between 400 and 1,000, all of whom may need some degree of assistance. In a National College Counseling Project, the data indicated that the most frequently mentioned problem by counselors was a lack of sufficient time to get to know the students, to engage in creative planning with students, and to carry out effective college planning (Engen, Laing, and Sawyer, 1988).

Besides the excessive ratio, a problem also exists in the roles and functions of a high school counselor. In a recent article by Tennyson, Miller, Skovholt, and Williams (1989), they identified major categories containing 58 functions performed by counselors. The categories were counseling, consulting, developmental/career guidance, evaluation and assessment, guidance program development, coordination and management, and administrative support services. What makes the situation more perplexing is that there is often conflict within these functions as to the importance and priorities.

Although many counselors, students, parents, teachers, and principals report that working with students remains the primary function, there is still major disagreement as to what that entails (Olson and Dilley, 1988). Olson and Dilley also report that counselors can barely keep up with their functions, let alone give additional attention for other critical areas, such as suicide prevention, drug abuse, school dropouts, sexual abuse, etc.

It is almost certain that the broad responsibility of the school counselor will not decrease. In fact, over time, the counselor may be expected to do more as other critical needs are identified. One way to improve guidance to college-bound students within the current restraints is for the counselor to be a facilitator/leader for the classroom environment. As stated by the American School Counselor Association, the school counselor is to provide "structured developmental guidance experiences presented systematically through groups (including classrooms) to promote growth of psychological aspects of human development" (Tennyson et al., 1989, p. 402).

Recognizing there simply is not enough time to meet and talk to every college-bound student individually, programs must be designed to reach more prospective students. The key to this success lies with organized team work with responsive teachers of college-preparatory courses. These classes are often offered at all levels of high school, and in addition, some schools offer courses designed for college credit. Utilizing these courses, the counselor needs to prepare and facilitate a four year developmental program on college selection that can be presented in all level classrooms.

The program should be designed to provide information at each level of high school, starting with the freshmen students. This will encourage the freshmen students to begin considering college and enable upper level students to make more detailed plans. To further develop rapport with the students, the counselor can have selected upper level high school students to assist in talking to the younger students on what is important in college planning.

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Emphasis should first be placed on fostering student involvement by facilitating exploration of their interests, abilities, strengths, and aspirations. This can be followed with identifying and clarifying goals and potential objectives for college. Other sessions could be offered beginning with the sophomores with information on college preparatory testing, such as the PSAT or PACT. The juniors could be provided programs to include information on college admissions testing as well as college selection criteria. The seniors can be involved in final college selection decisions and learning what to expect as college freshmen. The developmental program should also emphasize the importance of high school grades in establishing a student's credentials. The following model provides ideas for grade level specific college counseling group activities.

Group Sessions

9th Grade Orientation

- Explore interests, abilities, strengths and aspirations
- Orient students on counseling office help/assistance
- Discuss four year college developmental program
- Stress importance of course planning-keeping options open
- Review overall college entrance requirements (i.e., MAPS)
- Consider items of importance for college
  - Courses taken
  - Grade point average and high school class ranking
  - Student activities
  - College entrance tests
- Stimulate discussion about goals and objectives

10th Grade Sessions

- Review preliminary college testing (PSAT, PACT)
- Explore discovering who you are--why is college important
- Brainstorm interest inventory activities
- Review accomplishments and what to do now
- Explore strengths/weaknesses, goals and objectives

11th Grade Sessions

- Review college admissions testing (SAT, ACT)
- Review student accomplishments and remaining goals
- Provide/guide discussions on college selection criteria (early selections, what is the best college as compared to individual needs)
- Explore effective decision-making/problem solving
- Examine realistic planning
- Provide information on financial aid and scholarships (how and when to start)

12th Grade Sessions

- Finalize college selections
- Discuss remaining actions (applications, tests, deadlines)
- Review decision-making and problem solving skills
- Encourage college visits
- Foster talk on individual responsibilities/actions
- Discuss what to expect as college freshmen
- Panel discussion with alumni attending college

If teachers are receptive, this can be followed with other classroom sessions stressing decision making complexities in college selection. College freshmen recently graduated from the high school could be asked to speak to the seniors about their perception on student adjustment and development. Additionally, the counselor can reinforce this program by distributing a self-prepared pamphlet stressing important information for college-bound students.

Prior to classroom orientations, the counselor should first go over the lesson plan with the teacher for counsel, coordination, and recommendations. In turn, through continuous interactions with the counselor, the teacher will develop a level of expertise in assisting with the student questions in the counselor's absence and will become a strong advocate of this developmental counseling program. To insure continued effectiveness, the teacher/counselor should follow up with the students on course improvements/evaluations.

A continuum to this effort is to provide more specific guidance to the students who are now interested in finding out about certain schools. The counselor can solicit the help of these or other teachers who have graduated recently from particular schools that interest the students. In turn, they can present detailed college experiences to student groups. The counselor should offer support to these sessions, but allow the teacher to have the lead. If teachers are not available, the counselor can facilitate group meetings with the students. The purpose of the meetings is to enable students to become familiar with the college literature, catalogs, computer guides, etc., that are available in the counseling office. One-on-one appointment sessions with the counselor can then concentrate on student-unique problems.

The above developmental program and strategies may enable students to acquire competency as they select colleges that meet their interests, needs, and abilities. Of equal importance, counselors can make effective and efficient use of their abilities to reach students and preserve other time to address particular student problems. The success of the developmental program lies in up-front planning and in obtaining and reinforcing team efforts within the teaching staff and administration. The counselor has to become a facilitator of an important and necessary process.

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MIGRANT CHILDREN—YOUTH AT RISK:

WHO THEY ARE, THEIR UNIQUE EDUCATIONAL DILEMMA, AND SOLUTIONS EDUCATORS/COUNSELORS CAN OFFER

by Diana S. vonHoldt

Abstract

This nation's 500,000 migrant children carry on a familial lifestyle in which education is abandoned and parents are followed into labor fields. Health care is generally nonexistent, and poverty is commonplace. Proposed solutions from published literature and this author include cultural understanding and support groups, bilingual programs/materials, mobile classrooms, teacher support, in-service programs, and a computerized information system.

> They always come without any records. They just show up on the doorstep . . . This kind of kid doesn't want to make friends. It hurts when he has to leave. Some have gone through seven schools in one year. Records never catch up with them. (C. Breuning, personal communication, September 24, 1988).

Beginning in early childhood, migrant children are faced with hardships from which they are seldom able to break free. As adults, they too, perpetuate this migrant existence onto their own children. Slesinger (1985) stated that migrant parents and children have minimal formal schooling, live in poverty, and have little regular and preventive health care. These youngsters must be given the chance to develop their talents, to realize their potential, and to experience a better life. This paper will present an overview of migrant children: who they are, their particular barriers in the educational arena, and solutions educators and counselors can offer.

Who They Are

In Florida, the migrant child is an eighth grader who dropped out of school to marry a teenager who dropped out of the tenth grade. For the next 20 years they will cut cane, pack corn, and drive tractors in migrant labor fields across the United States (Doyle, 1980).

Most migrant families travel over 4,000 miles each year (Slesinger, 1985). Smith (1974) speaks of their experiences: "Moving across the country, from north to south, from east to west, the migrant child sees a lot of the United States early. The view can be quite good from a rickety bus or the back of a flatbed truck" (p. 19). Travel is thought of in terms of crops, not states. One migrant child told Smith (1974), "My baby sister was born in sugar beets and took pneumonia and died on the way to cherries" (p. 19). That she had traveled with her family from Colorado to Michigan was trivial.

In Palm Beach County, in 1980, Doyle estimated that 6,000 migrant youngsters would enter and leave the educational system like actors on a stage. Stout (1980) found several hundred migrant children working in California's San Joaquin Valley. Despite California's mandatory school attendance laws, 150,000 children harvest crops each year. Harrington (1987) concurred with Smith (1974) that the nation's 500,000 migrant students are among the most vulnerable in the classrooms. They bring with them lives of poverty, mobility, cultural alienation, and low expectations. They are forced to live in barren, crowded environments; to work in extreme heat from early dawn far into the night; to live without parental supervision; to survive with poor nutritional food served sporadically; and in general to take care of themselves and often times younger siblings.

Johnson (1987) noted that migrant students in California have three common characteristics: (a) schooling interrupted by moves caused by parents' seasonal work, (b) lack of fluency in the language of the school, and (c) low academic achievement. Harrington (1987) insists, "Unless this cycle is broken, the children are doomed to live the hopeless and uncertain lives of their ancestors, and they too will drop out of school—though, intelligence tests prove, not from lack of potential" (p. 37).

The Educational Dilemma

Doyle (1980) pointed out that migrant children miss out on the honor roll, long-lasting friendships, and continuity in education. "Their chances of being homecoming queen or captain of the football team are nil. It takes nine months to get into the full educational cycle" (Doyle, 1980, p. 1). Harrington (1987) concurred that the average migrant student enrolls in three different schools in one year. Further, Harrington stressed that this child lags from 6 to 18 months behind his peers and may take 3 years to progress one grade level.

The typical migrant child completes only 7.7 years of schooling compared with 12.5 years for the general population. Often, the migrant child is not fluent in English (Harrington, 1987). Smith (1974) extended the observations of Doyle (1980) and Harrington with a less promising picture. "Education has long been a catch-as-catch-can proposition for migrant children. Only 10% of these youngsters ever finish high school. The average child finishes his schooling in the fourth or fifth grade" (Smith, 1974, p. 19).

Most migrant children express dislike for school, stating that they do not learn anything and that teachers look upon them as dumb (Smith, 1974). They identify themselves as trespassers in a society that rejects them: "For many migrants, adults, and children alike, safety depends on

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anonymity. Even those who speak English with some facility often refuse to complete lessons" (Stout, 1980, p. 28-29). Stout (1980) quotes a migrant worker who claims "We work with our hands. We belong in the fields" (p. 29).

Stout (1980) and Smith (1974) agreed with Doyle (1980) and Harrington (1987) that mobility is a monumental enigma for the education of migrant children. "Jorgina . . . journeyed 600 to 1,000 miles between jobs; in her 16 years, she's traveled over 300,000 miles, mostly by car, lived in 13 different states, and worked for several hundred separate employers" (Stout, 1980, p. 29). This nomadic life reveals a decades old rhythm: Migrant children start school in the North, and when the harvest is over they return to the South. When spring comes, the children and their families head north again (Harrington).

Understanding the values of the migrant family is vital. Older children see the fields, not the classrooms, as meeting their immediate needs.

Across the nation, school officials are perplexed by fluctuating enrollment and the appropriate techniques of teaching these children. Stout (1980) pointed out that since migrant families move frequently, the children lack the motivation necessary for continuing in school and look toward manual labor which can supply such immediate rewards as money, food, and clothing. Some migrant parents feel that schools undermine their authority while others simply need their children as wage earners. Most do not see any advantage in involving their children in a system that teaches them to feel bad about themselves for not being able to speak English well.

Compounding the problem of mobility is the dropout rate among migrant students. Doyle (1980) stated that about 84% of Florida's 54,000 migrant students quit school while in junior or senior high school. Mexican American students have the highest dropout rate of any minority group in the nation, 1 out of 20 graduates. Rodriguez and Gilbert (1985) noted that 90% of migrant children never receive high school diplomas and that only 2% pursue postsecondary education. According to Slesinger (1985), the older the migrant worker, the less formal schooling. In Wisconsin, Slesinger failed to find one worker 45 years or older who had completed eighth grade.

Regular and preventive health care is nearly nonexistent in migrant families. Slesinger (1985) observed that about 30% of migrant workers have never received a physical examination, 25% have never seen a dentist, and 35% have never had a vision examination. Only half of the children under 12 years of age have ever received a pediatric checkup. Disease and infections resulting from inadequate diet and unsanitary living conditions plague the migrant child (Smith, 1974). Often parental ignorance prevents the child from receiving routine immunizations, dental, and medical care. Other times, state laws declare migrants ineligible for medical services. Finally, medical care just isn't part of the migrant family's budget (Smith).

Educational Solutions for Migrant Children

Consider the following situation: Fourteen year old Jose' and fifteen year old Ramon' arrive at school without any records. They are unable to speak, read, or write English. Teachers begin echoing the sentiment that each does not want these boys in their room (Smith, 1974). How can the professionals in education solve this dilemma?

Researchers offer some solutions. Harrington (1987) sees educators as having great impact on migrant students, no matter how brief the encounter. Through the teacher's and counselor's patience and understanding of the migrant's unique needs, progress can be made. "We should find out why a student is dirty or lethargic before labeling. If homework isn't completed, we should ask why and follow up on it" (Harrington, 1987, p. 37).

Understanding the values of the migrant family is vital. Older children see the fields, not the classrooms, as meeting their immediate needs. Certain migrant groups mix religion and superstition. Some believe, for example, that a compliment regarding a personal attribute such as eyes must be accompanied by a touch or evil spirits will take away that attribute. Others perform rituals to avoid lightning and bad luck (Harrington, 1987).

Enhancing the student's self-image is another area in which the teacher and counselor can play a significant role. In some migrant cultures, women are taught to be subservient to men. Through an awareness of this, educators can effectively approach migrant girls and lessen their apprehension in the classroom. Setting shorter goals and maintaining academic flexibility can also help these children find success in school (Harrington, 1987).

Nonmigrant students can play an important role in the migrant's life. Harrington (1987) found that migrant children often feel unwelcome in school. He proposed that teachers and counselors encourage students to mix and break down cultural barriers.

The lack of school records is a particularly difficult problem for teachers and counselors. Students must be placed quickly in a program most beneficial for them so that as much learning as possible can take place before they are on the road again. Even the $7 million computerized interstate system in Michigan isn't quick enough for migrant children. Most records are received just in time to pass onto the next school, or they arrive incomplete. Even though this system has its problems, it has potential. Some educators have suggested adding information regarding the students' aspirations, talents, and awards so that more continuity can be built into their educational experience (Harrington, 1987).

Florida has taken a legislative approach to the problem of migrant education by passing a bill which allows districts to extend the school day and shorten the school term for migrant students (Doyle, 1980). Further, social workers visit the labor camps looking for school age children. Once they obtain background information, it is transmitted to the Migrant Record Transfer System in Little Rock, Arkansas,

There appear to be several functional strategies available for a school counselor when a migrant child enters school.

and within 24 hours information is received regarding educational and medical background. Doyle also found that kindergarten through sixth grade children in Florida are given special lessons in language and math skills. Those who cannot speak English are placed in a bilingual program. Special migrant counselors help students with educational and social problems, encouraging them to finish school and seek gainful employment.

Smith (1974) reported that since the passage in 1965 of the Migrant Amendment to Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, almost all states have attempted to provide learning programs for migrant children which focus on language, cultural development, self-image, nutrition and health, and medical care. In Ohio, federally funded school classes for migrant children are held in conjunction with day-care centers. Balanced lunches are served and health care demonstrations are provided.

In California, (Stout, 1980) educators have set up special programs allowing migrant children to attend school with other migrant students. In this way, the stigma of inferiority which accompanies migrant children into the conventional classroom is diminished. Rodriguez and Gilbert (1985) described the MENTE (mente is Spanish for mind) program, initiated through the University of the Pacific, which offers academic and personal enrichment for talented migrant high school students.

Mexico is also addressing migrant education. Bixier-Marquez (1986) reported the use of a mobile educational system in which teachers and classrooms travel with migrant children and their families via railroad cars. Students are able to receive a continuous education with the same curriculum, teacher, and peer group. One migrant mother truly recognizes the quandary and future of her people: "Our children must go to school and learn to do other things besides pick beans and tomatoes. Each year it gets harder and harder for my people to find work . . . For us there is no tomorrow without education" (Smith, 1974, p. 21).

There appear to be several functional strategies available for a school counselor when a migrant child enters school. First, special efforts must be implemented quickly in order to maximize the educational time available for the child. A peer "buddy" (if available, one that is bilingual) needs to be paired with this student so that the first few weeks promote positive experiences. A bilingual teacher's aide would also be beneficial. The counselor should have available bilingual instructional and counseling materials. Since it is probable that the migrant student will arrive without school records, the counselor must speedily gather information, assess, and place this student in the most appropriate program. Close contact with the student and his teachers should be maintained in order to monitor progress or problems.

A second major concern for the counselor is the student's health. Since migrant children seldom receive health care, the counselor would do well to arrange a physical examination, dental examination, vision examination, and immunization checkup through the county health department. If the health department cannot accommodate these needs, the counselor should contact the local social services agency seeking out medically needy programs.

Third, contact should be initiated with the appropriate cultural group so a support system is available for the migrant child and family. Perhaps a volunteer from this cultural group can assist the child in school.

Fourth, the school counselor may find a home visit a productive step in fostering a working relationship between the school and the migrant family. Background information can be gathered which could help increase the migrant child's success in the school setting.

Finally, the school counselor can prepare classroom teachers for accepting and working with migrant children through in-service presentations. Information on cultural backgrounds, language barriers, monetary barriers, and health and living conditions can create empathy and understanding for the special needs of these children. The school counselor can offer teachers continuous support and reinforcement for the extra work these children require.

For the teacher and counselor, the challenge of providing meaningful educational experiences amid sporadic school attendance is truly formidable. Perhaps more for the migrant student than for any other, it is paramount that school professionals recognize the strengths these children bring into the classroom and quickly capitalize on those for the benefit of all students. As Harrington (1987), stresses, "These children are exciting because they bring wholly new experiences to the classroom. There is so much a teacher can do by building on their life experiences." All children hold the potential of becoming our future educational, political, and social leaders. By filling in the academic gaps for the nation's migrant children, educators will ensure that no talent remains hidden and that these children, as educated adults, are able to lead their communities to a better tomorrow. Harrington offers a resource list for further information and materials regarding migrant education.

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BUILDING UNDERSTANDING AND SUPPORT FOR GAY YOUTH

by Martha E. Slayden

Abstract

Studies have shown that approximately one out of ten teenagers may be struggling with the reality that he or she is homosexual. This article explores how this issue affects teenagers and suggests strategies for the school counselor to help gay and lesbian young people deal with the problems they encounter.

Although a complete and accurate survey has never been and probably will never be conducted, research over the last 40 years indicates that approximately 10% of all people are homosexual (Hanckel & Cunningham, 1979; Vennard, 1988). Other recent studies have shown that sexual orientation (which shall be herein defined as the gender toward which a person is most frequently sexually attracted) is usually firmly in place by the age of 5 or 6, although it is generally not manifested in sexual activity until after puberty (Vennard, 1988; Whitlock, 1988). Thus, from these two statistics one can deduce that one out of every ten young people in school is struggling with the reality that he or she may be homosexual. In most sectors of American society today, this realization is indeed a struggle. This hidden minority of people is subject to prejudice, fear and misunderstanding that educators generally do not tolerate in reference to other minority groups. However, it may go blatantly ignored in reference to homosexuals.

Though homosexuality has existed across all cultures throughout history, it remains a taboo subject, especially in schools. Because of the taboo, many of the terms associated with it are misunderstood or misused. "Homosexuals" may be defined as those who relate sexually to others of their own gender (Hanckel & Cunningham, 1979). This term has a certain clinical feeling and tends to focus attention exclusively on the sexual aspect of the person. Therefore, many people now use the term "gay" which implies a sense of pride in such an identity (Hanckel & Cunningham, 1979; Stoddard, et al., 1983). "Gay" refers primarily to men, while women usually refer to themselves as "lesbian". However, the terms "gay women" and "gay people" are often used as an expression of solidarity in the political movement (Stoddard, et al., 1983; Vennard, 1988). The latter terminology will be used for most of this article. The term "gay", as opposed to the strictly defined "homosexual", includes all aspects of a person's life, the social and emotional parts, not just his or her sexual orientation.

Transvestites and transsexuals are sometimes automatically assumed to be homosexuals. Actually, a transvestite is someone who cross-dresses, wears clothing that is usually worn by the opposite gender. Most transvestites in present-day society are heterosexual men who usually cross-dress in the privacy of their homes (Hanckel & Cunningham, 1979). There are some gay male transvestites who often cross-dress in public, referred to as "drag queens".

Transsexuals are people who psychologically identify themselves with the gender opposite of their own body and wish to become that gender. Many have surgery and hormone treatments in order to become physically more like the gender they feel themselves to be psychologically (Hanckel & Cunningham, 1979). Transsexuals are not gay; they are attracted to, what is in their minds, the opposite gender.

As for the view of homosexuality as an abnormality, dysfunction or disease, the American Psychiatric Association voted in 1973 to no longer classify homosexuality as a psychiatric disorder. Hunt, 1987

Derogatory terms, such as "fag" and "dyke", are the way people often refer to homosexuals. Such name-calling is one manifestation of "homophobia", the fear of homosexuality in others and in oneself. In today's strongly homophobic American society, homosexuality is often referred to as a disease, an abnormality, a dysfunction or a sin.

The various religions still differ in their views of homosexuality, ranging from the absolute intolerance of some fundamentalist Christian groups to the accepting and supportive stance of the Quakers. The topic of gay people and religion is one that is beyond the scope of this article. Whitlock (1988), one of many authors who explores that subject more deeply, offers a resource guide to religious groups offering support to gays.

As for the view of homosexuality as an abnormality, dysfunction or disease, the American Psychiatric Association voted in 1973 to no longer classify homosexuality as a psychiatric disorder (Hunt, 1987). Since then, the majority of research and treatment focuses on the problems faced by individuals as a result of their homosexual orientation within a homophobic environment (Herek, 1985).

Finally, in defining vocabulary, the terms "in the closet" and "coming out" are important. A homosexual who is in the closet has not acknowledged his or her sexual orientation to others and sometimes not even to him or herself. Coming

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out of the closet means proclaiming one's homosexuality, first to oneself, then gradually and selectively to others. Most young people growing up surrounded by homophobia do not automatically embrace and accept the feeling that they are homosexual, nor do they rush to share the news with family and friends. Rather, they tend to keep those first recognitions of homosexuality in themselves secret for fear of rejection and hatred from their families and friends. But the anxiety and difficulty of leading a double life, of never being able to open up about one's sexual feelings, attractions and affections, creates a great strain. As Hanckel and Cunningham (1979) explain it, "Many gays solve the coming out dilemma by selectively telling some people but not others . . . Weighing risks against possible benefits, gays decide which friends or relatives to be honest with" (p. 64). And, as McNaught (1988) states, "The degree to which a homosexual can do that (come out) determines the degree of his or her freedom" (p. 142).

In spite of some strides in the area of "Gay Liberation" during the 1970's, homosexuality is still not openly discussed in many parts of American society and homophobia has been on the rise in the last 8 to 10 years
Hunt, 1987

In spite of some strides in the area of "Gay Liberation" during the 1970's, homosexuality is still not openly discussed in many parts of American society and homophobia has been on the rise in the last 8 to 10 years (Hunt, 1987). Many gay people, especially young people, tend to internalize the society's negative views of homosexuals and they develop feelings of guilt, shame and self-hatred. According to two mothers of gay children who are also authors of a book on the subject, "A low self-image is one of the hardest things for gay people to deal with as they mature (Fairchild & Hayward, 1979, p. 27).

The stress of trying to keep such a huge secret and the pain of living in a homophobic society can cause self-destructive patterns for gay men and women struggling with their identities. Suicide rates tend to be three times higher among homosexuals than heterosexuals (Vennard, 1988). In fact, Vennard (1988) indicates that 30% of all teen suicides nationwide are believed to be related to sexual orientation (based on the reports of suicide attempt survivors), and reminds that sexual orientation is seldom discussed in suicide prevention programs.

Self-destructive behaviors such as promiscuity, prostitution and drug and alcohol abuse are other ways some gay people try to deal with their problems (Hunt, 1987). Much of the media attention on gays focuses on these activities, thus supporting the idea that gays are "sick" and perverse. It is interesting to shift one's perspective, however, and question whether an intolerant society is actually the root of the problems homosexuals suffer. In spite of these self-destructive patterns which do exist in some gay people, other attacks aimed at homosexuals have been proven untrue. For example, the notion that gays want to seduce or abuse children has been proven to be incorrect. In fact, the great majority of child molestation is committed by adult heterosexual men upon young girls (Bell & Weinberg, 1978; Hanckel & Cunningham, 1979; Hunt, 1987). Such crimes of sexual violence are committed by dangerous and disturbed individuals, regardless of their sexual orientation.

Within a school setting, gay youth feel unsafe, both physically and emotionally. Whitlock (1988) cites several cases of teenagers who faced not only ridicule and harassment, but also violence. According to Whitlock, the perpetrators are not always peers; sometimes teachers and administrators are just as guilty. According to a recent high school graduate who is gay, too much peer pressure prevents coming out of the closet in high school (personal communication with an anonymous source, September 19, 1988). The name-calling and the ridicule among teenagers is rampant, and in the case of a known homosexual it can be exceedingly cruel. Vennard (1988) cites the plight of a young lesbian whose sexual orientation accidentally leaked out in her high school. The girl recounted such experiences as being verbally and physically assaulted, asked to quit the basketball team and having her locker vandalized regularly. When she took her case to the school principal, she received no defense or support. These injustices were in addition to the loneliness of being rejected by her peers. Under circumstances such as these, it is little wonder that gay youth often have problems with truancy and dropping out of school (Whitlock, 1988).

A young person who is beginning to face the fact that he or she is gay usually has no support structure and lacks role models. Most gay educators are still in the closet because their civil rights are generally flimsy, especially in terms of equal employment. Although Federal employees are protected against discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation, many courts take exception to the rule in the case of gay school employees out of fear of their "corrupting influence" on youth (Stoddard, et al., 1983). As a young gay man states, "If you were brought up to know that this (homosexuality) might happen and it's okay, it would be different" (personal communication with an anonymous source, September 19, 1988). As it stands now, a teenager who is struggling with his or her homosexuality usually feels there is no place to turn for help or understanding. There is seldom anyone who will be able to accept them as they are and help them learn to accept themselves.

In order to be helpful and supportive of gay students, school counselors must first explore their own attitudes about homosexuality, for many may possess unexplored prejudices and fears about it. Counselors who are themselves gay will have to face difficult personal decisions as to how far they are willing and able to come out in support of gay students. For all counselors, reading books and attending workshops about homosexuality and homophobia are good ways to gain knowledge and awareness about the subject. Some counselors may wish to establish contact with gay organizations in the community in order to find out first hand what a diverse population exists among gay people. Through face-to-face interaction with gay people, one is able to let go of stereotypes and see that there are as many different types of gay people as there are "straight" (heterosexual) people. As Bell (1978) states, "Homosexual men and women are best understood when they are seen as whole human beings, not just in terms of what they do sexually, despite the connection between sex and other aspects of their lives" (p. 218). Gay organizations often exist at colleges and universities, or one might contact the national organization called Parents and Friends of Lesbians and Gays which has several branches throughout Colorado (address provided in the resource list at the end).

Once one has begun to conquer the homophobia in him or herself, one can take steps to curb its existence in schools. Counselors can conduct in-service classes for faculty, administrators and their fellow counselors in order to disseminate accurate information about homosexuality and the consequences of homophobia. As a part of their overall attempt to improve school climate, counselors can include standards that prohibit name-calling and harassment of any group or individual, including gays. Counselors can influence the curriculum in sex education, biology and health classes to see that it includes discussion of homosexuality in a non-homophobic way. The discussion of AIDS and how it pertains to the sexual activity of both homosexuals and heterosexuals should also be an important aspect of sex education. In schools where small groups are conducted around the topic of sexuality and relationships, one or several sessions might include a discussion of homosexuality or even a visiting gay speaker. Counselors might visit sex education or health classes and conduct dyadic role-playing situations and small group discussions about homosexuality. In a study by Serdahely and Ziemba (1985), such techniques were found to effectively reduce homophobia among college freshmen.

The counselor might offer assertiveness training type exercises to empower the student. Building the student's self-esteem through the counseling relationship will also help the student deal with his or her peers with more confidence.

Realistically, it may remain impossible to change some people's disdain for homosexuals. Therefore, counselors who are open about discussing the topic should be aware of the possible backlash from the school administration, the parents, and other faculty. Herek (1985), a researcher of homophobia, states, "Since homosexual persons in our society historically have been viewed as sick, immoral, antisocial, or otherwise bad, asking instead what is wrong with people who persecute them represents a political stance" (p. 2). The adoption of such a stance will require a firm, non-defensive and yet gentle approach. Homophobia is a fear, and the counselor must respect the client's fear while gradually exposing him or her to a new perspective.

According to one gay student, if only one counselor in a school becomes known as the "gay advocate", it may be difficult for gay students to approach that counselor; it may appear too incriminating (personal communication with an anonymous source, September 19, 1988). However, that is not a reason to avoid the subject completely. Ideally, the counseling office as a whole should become a safe environment for any student who wants to talk about sexual orientation. Having pamphlets on sexual orientation in the counseling center or a bookshelf labeled "Gay and Lesbian Studies" are subtle ways to show students that the topic is open to discussion. McNaught (1988) recommends a booklet called "20 Questions About Homosexuality" published by the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force (address provided at the end). Whitlock's (1988) resource guide mentions several other helpful books and brochures.

In counseling a student who believes that he or she might be gay the counselor needs to listen, not confront. Asking the student, "Are you gay?" is not an appropriate technique. The counselor needs to validate the student and honor his or her experience, fears and needs. The counselor needs to focus on how he or she can support, rather than dwell on asking "why?" Similarly, it is not helpful to suggest that it's only a phase, or to ask, "Are you sure?" For most young gay people, telling another person about their secret remains a very difficult step to take. A caring counselor respects them and helps them find ways of living their lives to the fullest in our present-day homophobic society.

Some students may seek counseling because they fear that certain actions, thoughts or feelings, for example, having a crush on a person of the same gender or having an isolated sexual encounter with someone of the same gender, automatically means they are gay. In this case, the counselor should be careful not to label the student's behavior or feelings. As Whitlock explains, "This process of developing sexual orientation may take several years, but at some point along the way those who are gay begin to consciously define their homosexuality" (p. 37). Young people, in their confusion about their sexuality, may try to explore and may feel many doubts. They need assurance that this is normal and that no one thought or behavior is going to "peg" them as definitely gay or definitely straight.

Students who feel certain of their homosexual orientation and are willing to disclose this to a counselor may need guidance and support in certain areas of their lives. For example, they may need help in learning to deal with put downs. The counselor might offer assertiveness training type exercises to empower the student. Building the student's self-esteem through the counseling relationship will also help the student deal with his or her peers with more confidence. Finding positive gay role models might also help build the student's self-esteem. To this end, the counselor can recommend books, community organizations or even a gay pen-pal. Two such programs, as well as many works of fiction and non-fiction for gay youth, are given in Whitlock's (1988) resource guide.

Gay students may also be struggling with the question of coming out – how, when and with whom. There is no one

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FROM COMPUTER TO VIDEO TECHNOLOGY: WILL COUNSELORS JOIN IN?

By Rich Feller and Brent Jacobsen

Abstract

While computer technology has made marginal impact on Guidance programs, this article argues that video technology has ample opportunity to shape programs and the instructional role of counselors. Through a pilot study the "Colorado Video Review and Evaluation Form" has been developed and is offered to assist counselors in reviewing and evaluating videotape products in terms of instructional quality, technical quality and ability to contribute to achievement of the National Career Development Competencies.

As competency based guidance programs replace ancillary guidance services in the 1990s, attention directed to incorporating technology within the counselors' instructional role is encouraged. Complementary efforts by the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee and guidance reformers nationwide advanced the notion that counselors play a significant role in helping counselees develop self knowledge, educational and occupational exploration and career planning competencies. This article argues that video technology can play a role at least equal to that played by computer technology.

While counselors have been trained to see the counseling relationship as the dominate intervention tool, there is increasing respect for technology usage within comprehensive guidance programs (Lackner & Feller, 1984; Maze 1987; Feller, in press). As the information age brought computers to school guidance and agency offices, Colorado counselors reluctantly (Knoll, 1985) used computerized career information systems and software tools. As various standards, guidelines and associations acquainted the counseling community with computerized guidance technology, widespread acceptance is still to come. Early attempts to familiarize counselors with software such as *A Review and Evaluation of Microcomputer Software for Guidance, Counseling and Placement* (Feller & Knoll, 1985) and *The Guidance and Counseling Directory of Microcomputer Software* (Santa Clara Office of Education, 1986) led to marginal interest in software use as a guidance tool. Presently, even Walz and Bleuer's seminal work *Counseling Software Guide* (1989) receives only mild interest.

Video technology, however, may create a different response. Whereas students are often more responsive to computer usage than counselors, video technology appeals to viewers of all ages. While many avoid learning the difference between a bite and a byte, is it possible to escape the power of the tube? Video usage within guidance and career development programs has the additional advantage of coming of age during the nationwide interest in the National Career Development Guidelines. If appropriately selected and integrated within a guidance curriculum, video technology holds the potential of greatly enhancing competency attainment throughout the life span.

As videos are used to meet guidance objectives, curriculum developers and producers will see that the supply and demand for video products expands. Yet, school and agency guidance personnel with limited budgets and time must locate producers and secure purchase orders, only to review products often aggressively marketed but poorly constructed. Videos are expensive "black boxes" difficult to evaluate and compare. Furthermore, as video technology increases, the gap between the "have and have not" guidance programs will increase unless a centralized model of review and evaluation becomes available.

Such an effort at Colorado State University through a grant with the Colorado Community College and Occupational Education System has resulted in the development of the Colorado Video Review and Evaluation Form (see page 12). Intended to assist counselors in reviewing and evaluating videotapes, this form complements a *Career Development Video Review Guide* to be released in June 1990.

The development of a form to use in the review of guidance and career development videotapes inherently involves the establishment of guidelines for the preparation and evaluation of the medium. As a starting point, the project relied heavily on work done by the National Vocational Guidance Association (now National Career Development Association) in the early 1970s. The NVGA Career Information Evaluation Committee prepared and field-tested guidelines for "non-print career media" (NVGA, 1977). These guidelines were "designed to assist those who select and use career-related media ... as well as those engaged in the production of such materials" (NVGA, 1977).

After contacting libraries, commercial vendors, media distribution centers, clearinghouses, and professionals involved in the production of instructional videos, it was agreed that there is little consistency in how videos are evaluated. Clearly, there was a significant need to establish guidelines and develop a review tool.

One of the most well-developed video evaluation systems is the California Instructional Video Clearinghouse (Stanislaus County Department of Education, 1989). The ACE Distribution Service located at Kansas State University "does not have a written evaluation procedure for video products" (S. M. White, personal communication,

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COLORADO VIDEO REVIEW and EVALUATION FORM

Evaluator's Name ____________ Title ____________ Date ____________

School/Agency ____________ City, State, Zip ____________ Grades/Ages of Students/Clients ____________

Title of Video: ______________________________

Producer: ____________ **Producer's Recommended Level:**

Subject: ____________ **Elem.** ___ **Mid/JHS** ___ **HS** ___ **Adult** ___

Supportive Printed Materials Included . . . . **Yes** ___ **No** ___ **Price** ____________

Running Time: ____________ **Copyright/Production Date:** ____________

QUALITY ASSESSMENT: For each criterion, circle the appropriate number on the rating scale described below.

4 = EXCELLENT:	Criterion addressed as effectively and creatively as possible. Exceptional impact.
3 = VERY GOOD:	Criterion addressed well. Above average. Strong impact.
2 = ACCEPTABLE:	Not positive or negative. Average job of addressing the criterion.
1 = POOR:	Criterion addressed in an unacceptable manner. Lacks quality. Below average.
NOTE:	For ratings of 4 (Excellent) or 1 (Poor), please provide observations in Comments Section.

INSTRUCTIONAL QUALITY

Criteria	Operational Definitions/Guidelines for Rating	Rating Scale	Comments
Content	Title seems appropriate. Purpose understood early. Content current, accurate with adequate coverage. Content load appropriate.	4 3 2 1	
Instructional Design	Well-organized. Presented logically, clearly. Information appropriate for intended audience level. Objectives readily identifiable.	4 3 2 1	
Effectiveness	Holds interest of intended audience. Stimulates thinking. Creates curiosity. Positively impacts viewer's knowledge, skill, and/or attitude. Motivates response.	4 3 2 1	
Social Orientation	Role stereotyping (age, sex, race, ethnicity, religion, handicapping condition, etc.) avoided. Value orientation or social class bias not implied. Appropriate attention to current social issues (e.g., drug and alcohol abuse, health and wellness, aggression, self responsibility, etc.)	4 3 2 1	
Market Value	Product is needed. Unique. Marketable nationally. Timely and useful shelf life. Appropriate pricing.	4 3 2 1	
	Average Rating of Instructional Quality (Total points ÷ 5) =	☐	

TECHNICAL QUALITY

Criteria	Operational Definitions/Guidelines for Rating	Rating Scale	Comments
Audio	Voices, narration are clear, understandable. Sound is crisp, clean. Background noise minimal. Music, sound effects appropriate, contribute to message.	4 3 2 1	
Visual	Focus, color, clarity, exposure are acceptable. Graphics and special effects appropriate, contribute to message. Attention getting scenes used. Visual impact strong.	4 3 2 1	
Production	Credits include names, dates, how to obtain information, etc. Camera work is smooth, steady, professional. Lighting natural, editing smooth.	4 3 2 1	
	Average Rating of Technical Quality (Total points ÷ 3) =	☐	

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NATIONAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT GUIDELINE ASSESSMENT:

A check indicates that the video contributes positively to the intended viewer's achievement of the competency.

Note: For clarification of each competency and content area, refer to indicators included in the complete document, the National Career Development Guidelines.

Content Area	Related Competencies	Rating	# √s	Comments
Self-Knowledge	High School This video contributes to the viewer's . . .			
	I. Understanding of the influence of a positive self concept.	☐		
	II. Skills to interact positively with others.	☐		
	III. Understanding of the impact of growth and development.	☐	___	
	Adult This video contributes to the viewer's . . .			
	I. Skills to maintain a positive self concept.	☐		
	II. Skills to maintain effective behaviors.	☐		
	III. Understanding of developmental changes and transitions.	☐	___	
Educational and Occupational Exploration	High School This video contributes to the viewer's . . .			
	IV. Understanding of the relationship between educational achievement and career planning.	☐		
	V. Understanding of the need for positive attitudes toward work and learning.	☐		
	VI. Skills to locate, evaluate, and interpret career information.	☐		
	VII. Skills to prepare to seek, obtain, maintain and change jobs.	☐		
	VIII. Understanding of how societal needs and functions influence the nature and structure of work.	☐	___	
	Adult This video contributes to the viewer's . . .			
	IV. Skills to enter and participate in education and training.	☐		
	V. Skills to participate in work and life-long learning.	☐		
	VI. Skills to locate, evaluate and interpret information.	☐		
	VII. Skills to prepare to seek, obtain, maintain and change jobs.	☐		
	VIII. Understanding of how the needs and functions of society influence the nature and structure of work.	☐	___	
Career Planning	High School This video contributes to the viewer's . . .			
	IX. Skills to make decisions.	☐		
	X. Understanding of the interrelationship of life roles.	☐		
	XI. Understanding of the continuous changes in male/female roles.	☐		
	XII. Skills in career planning.	☐	___	
	Adult This video contributes to the viewer's . . .			
	IX. Skills to make decisions.	☐		
	X. Understanding of the impact of work on individual and family life.	☐		
	XI. Understanding of the continuing changes in male/female roles.	☐		
	XII. Skills to make career transitions.	☐	___	

SUMMARY RECOMMENDATIONS AND COMMENTS: Please use this section to provide your overall observations and suggestions.

GENERAL IMPRESSIONS:

The features I liked best about this video are . . . ____________

The features I liked least about this video are . . . ____________

If I could, I'd change this video by . . . ____________

Compared to similar videos, this one . . . ____________

Concerning the National Career Development Guidelines, this video . . . ____________

Final thoughts to help consumers . . . ____________

RECOMMENDED USE OF VIDEO:

- ☐ Introduction of a teaching/training unit
- ☐ Culmination of a teaching/training unit
- ☐ Stand alone instructional tool/unit/lesson
- ☐ Stimulation for further study on related subjects
- ☐ Motivational
- ☐ Entertainment
- ☐ Other: ____________

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

FACILITATING AN OUTPATIENT GROUP FOR LOW-INCOME HISPANIC WOMEN WITH A HISTORY OF MAJOR MENTAL ILLNESS

by Robert March, I. David Welch, ErmaLinda Martinez, and Dawn Hunter

Abstract

Describes an outpatient treatment group for Hispanic females who have a history of major mental illness. Organized in a community mental health center, the goals of the group are to provide an alternative to individual therapy, enhance socialization, improve self-esteem, and to assure that other aspects of treatment such as medication and crisis contact are provided. A demographic profile of the group members is provided. Suggestions and recommendations for the formation and continuation of a group for Hispanic women with major mental illness is provided.

This paper describes an outpatient group for Hispanic females who have a history of major mental illness and significant episodes of treatment, including hospitalization and chemotherapy. A clinical record search of group members was done to explore aspects of the group such as client characteristics, group observations, and hospital patterns to further assess the viability and effectiveness of group therapy with this population.

The Chicana* group is the product of an evolutionary process. The group was originally organized by a community minded, Spanish-speaking, Spanish-surnamed team secretary. She developed a socialization activity as an alternative to the individual therapy modality which, historically, seemed to be of little benefit to this client group. Serving as advocate, driver, and therapist, she maintained an ongoing group for over two years. The group evolved into a regular weekly group activity attended by approximately five or six clients. The group activity appeared to enhance the community adjustment of these clients through such indicators as improved medication and therapy compliance, fewer crisis contacts, and fewer hospitalizations. When the team secretary left the agency, the group disbanded despite the efforts of two culturally sensitive Anglo therapists; one of whom was bilingual. The group was reorganized with the addition of a hispanic female to the clinic staff. An experienced, Spanish-speaking, Spanish-surnamed therapist, she was able to contact four women from the original group. An Anglo, non-Spanish speaking co-therapist also facilitates the current group which consists of nine clients who meet on a weekly basis. The group functions in an outpatient, community-based setting in the eastern half of Boulder County (Colorado) which serves a population of 75,000, 10% being defined as "Spanish origin," (Boulder Daily Camera, 1984).

The Chicana group, as it is presently structured, meets on a weekly basis for two hours, plus travel time. All group members are assigned an individual therapist who serves as a case manager to assure that other aspects of treatment such as medication, residential and crisis contacts are provided on a timely and appropriate basis. The group is viewed as an alternative to individual therapy. Medication compliance, as well as group attendance and participation, are enhanced through the group process and the involvement of the group co-therapists.

A partial hospital group model described by Munoz (1982) best explains the goals of the Chicana group. In an outpatient and community setting, the group functions to enhance socialization, self-esteem, assertive behavior, and compliance with beneficial aspects of treatment. By providing this supportive environment, the goal is to reduce the need for more intensive treatment such as psychiatric hospitalization and encourage positive adjustment to the community-at-large as well as the client's natural support systems (Delgado & Humm-Delgado, 1982).

Client Characteristics

The group is composed of nine Spanish-speaking, Spanish-surnamed women. A search of the clinical records provided a profile of the group members. Ages range from 35 to 69 years; 51 years is the mean. All were born and raised in the southwestern U.S.; five in Colorado. One woman lived in a migrant family while all others lived primarily in rural areas and found field work within those areas.

Two group members were raised by both natural parents, two were raised in reconstructed families, one was reared by adoptive parents, one by her grandmother, and two were raised by siblings. Group members had an average of eight siblings each. A comparison of birth order shows that five women are the eldest daughters and three are the youngest in their family. Four members report physical and/or sexual abuse; all report some degree of

*refers to women of Mexican ancestry who live in what is now the U.S. and whose families may have been in the U.S. for many generations.

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psychological abuse or neglect in childhood. All nine women were raised in the Catholic church, three remain active in this religion, four are non-practicing Catholics and two are affiliated with other religions. All group members have been married. Five women have married once; three now live within this union, two are divorced. Three women have married twice; one lives with her husband and two are divorced. One woman is now living with her fourth husband.

All nine women have children; the range is 2 to 11 children. The mean number of live births for this group is six. Two thirds of the group have reported the neonatal or perinatal death of at least one child. Four group members have a total of seven dead children from accidents.

Formal education for these women range from none to grade ten. In addition, one has received a GED, and one attended an adult education class in reading. No group member is employed in the skilled labor market. One group member was employed in a sheltered workshop for sixteen months. Two others have been enrolled in the workshop, but did not benefit from the program. They list previous employment as child care, food service, janitorial tasks, and field work. The longest recorded period of employment is eighteen months. Eight of the women have been unemployed for at least a year, the ninth has worked, sporadically, as a part-time housekeeper.

These women derive financial support from the following sources: four share incomes with husbands who work as unskilled laborers, one couple receives social security benefits and a pension, three receive Social Security Disability benefits, and one is on county assistance.

Six women receive medicare or medicaid benefits. Their group fees are charged to these programs. Those who do not qualify for those benefits are charged a fee based on their family size and income. These fees range from no fee to three dollars per session.

The group members have a wide range of diagnoses: bipolar disorders, anxiety disorders: borderline dependent, histrionic, and schizoid personality disorders. Seven of the nine women take medications, singly or in combination, which include lithium carbonate, prolixin decanoate, amitriptyline, doxepin, hydrochloride, phenobarbital, dilantin, benedryl, chlorpromazine, trilafon, mellaril, cogentin, and antabuse. There has been little change in medications or dosages for these women within the past year.

The women's treatment within the mental health system range from less than a year to 28 years. The breakdown is: two began treatment less than 2 years ago, two have 6 year histories of treatment, two have 10 to 13 year histories, two have histories of 18 years and one woman first entered treatment 28 years ago.

Six members of the group have had from 3 to 15 or more hospitalizations while the other three have had no psychiatric hospitalizations. No group member has been hospitalized at a state institution (Ft. Logan MHC or Colorado State Hospital) since 1980, although since that time, group members have been hospitalized 13 times in local and metropolitan psychiatric facilities for a total of 124 days of inpatient psychiatric or other 24 hour treatment. These hospitalizations range from 2 to 34 days with a mean length of stay of 9.5 days. Prior to 1980, when the Chicana group first began, 5 of the 6 women who had hospitalizations, had seven commitments to state mental hospitals. The time in these facilities range from 1 week to 18 months. In addition to these 7 commitments, we have identified at least 13 other pre-1980 psychiatric admissions experienced by this group. Other pre-1980 clinical data, although incomplete, suggests a treatment pattern of periodic hospitalization followed by brief and sporadic outpatient visits leading to eventual termination from treatment.

Since joining the group, five of the women have been maintained in the community without the need for hospitalization. Those members who continue to need hospitalization appear to be using facilities closer to their homes for shorter periods of time. As the group continues to develop, the goal is to further reduce the need for psychiatric hospitalizations.

Group Dynamics

The group has evolved from a socialization, task-centered group into a more cohesive psychotherapeutic group. Initially, the women were cautious and unwilling to risk closer relationships with one another. During the initial phase, tasks were provided in the form of ongoing craft projects to facilitate interest and some purpose to the group. As the relationships began to build, the women began to risk sharing their feelings and problems with each other. This led to a lack of interest in making crafts and they entered into a social phase. This phase was characterized by the sharing of their personal histories, through which they found some commonalities and developed a deeper trust. The activities during this phase included going as a group for donuts at a coffee shop, making a meal together and having pot luck lunches.

As this time, the group provides a peer support system, enhanced social functioning and therapeutic interaction. The peer support system is seen as the networking that they do outside of the group. This includes out-of-group contacts with other group members about common concerns and interests, i.e., senior citizen group functions, Bible studies and sharing transportation to entertainment activities. This support is demonstrated, at times, in a very nurturing way. When a member has an apparent unmet need, the other members make an effort to meet that need, whether it is an emotional or material need. If a member is depressed during the group session, other members may make a phone call or visit during the week. Also, if a person voices a need for a particular item, (i.e., a pair of brown shoes) another member will usually show up at the next group meeting with a pair in the right shoe size, or have information about where they might be obtained.

The enhanced social functioning of the group members as measured by decreased psychiatric hospitalization, involves the women's sharing information about available community resources. It also involves learning better communication skills, problem solving skills, and more desirable/appropriate behaviors such as exhibiting a higher level of functioning within and outside the group setting. The group provides an environment where the women are more comfortable being involved in therapeutic interaction. They are willing to reveal personal experiences and issues which impact their daily lives. In turn, the other members are responsive to them and share similar personal experiences and insights. Themes and issues that have been raised include: incest, sexual and physical abuse, poverty, relationships, mental health problems, psychiatric hospitalizations and medications. When a group member is experiencing personal distress, the group seeks to reduce that member's anxiety through empathy, support, humor, advice, gift giving, or any other means that they feel is appropriate.

It is our perception that these women do not readily take control in their personal lives; therefore, they are ambivalent about making decisions or expressing their feelings openly. In the group, they are encouraged to express their ideas, to own their emotions, and to participate in the decision making process of the group. Therapists are responsive to the needs that the women express at these times. For example, therapists have gone to pick up government food subsidies when group members are low on groceries towards the end of the month. Therapists have gone on shopping trips to used clothing stores for clothing items, and, occasionally, transport members to take care of pressing personal business.

Group interaction is cooperative and supportive. It is the norm for the women to accept each other as female and Chicana. They respect each other's individuality and are courteous to one another. Generally, the women in the group practice avoidance rather than confronting another member or creating conflict. In group, they are encouraged to resolve group issues together. Smoking in the group room is one example of an issue that has not been resolved because the women are reluctant to monitor each other or themselves.

In spite of the difficulties these women have in confronting one another, they have become more able to openly discuss their differences without alienating one another or otherwise disturbing the group process. Attendance is high and the group appears to be more cohesive.

The group has definite norms. One norm is that they do not talk about an absent member, except to relate personal information about why the member is absent, or to voice concern about their current condition. Generally, they do not bring anyone else to the group. English is the predominate language used in group sessions. Spanish is spoken sporadically throughout the group; mostly in the form of jokes which need to be interpreted to the non Spanish-speaking Anglo therapist.

To facilitate the progress of the group, the agency provides funds for group activities and projects. For example: material for crafts, prizes for games, or visits to coffee shops or restaurants. The agency provides a group room as well as coffee supplies for the sessions. The most important service provided to group members is transportation. None of the women own a car or have a reliable source of transportation. Half of the women live in a small community fifteen miles away from the center. The group therapists use the agency van and another car to transport the women to and from group meetings and activities. If the transportation were not available, many members would not be able to attend the group.

Conclusions

Karno (1966) and Torrey (1970) have discussed the irrelevancy of, and the underutilization of, community mental health services by the Hispanic population. As this minority group continues to grow, it becomes incumbent upon the mental health system to develop a range of psychiatric services that will effectively assist clients with major mental illness to live independently within their local communities.

This paper describes the development and evolution of a therapeutic activity designed to meet the needs of a group of clients for whom community services had not been sufficient to sustain them within the community without long periods of psychiatric hospitalization. By paying attention to seemingly minor details such as transportation, flexible format and an effort to outreach to clients, a group modality is apparently appropriate and effective for therapeutically engaging "difficult to treat clients."

While our sample size is small, it is evident that one cannot assume cultural etiology when discussing the "hispanic" population. All of our group members were born in the U.S. and many families have lived in the U.S. for generations. There appear to be many degrees and levels of acculturation. It seems important to be sensitive to the need of language; both English and Spanish are spoken, although members speak predominately English during group.

One cannot view the group structure and process in the traditional sense and be successful. Transportation is a key issue in facilitating attendance and the group leaders must be flexible in facilitating a format that lends itself to socialization and problem solving issues such as housing and other basic necessities.

Our group members have experienced a great deal of hardship and loss in their lives and the emphasis is placed on empathizing and facilitating coping skills versus working toward insight and resolution of grief, for example. A psychotherapeutic process appears to naturally evolve out of creating a safe environment for the expression and discussion of issues ranging from cooking to abuse and death. It is a process group that attends to the immediate needs of the individuals or telling a joke. The group leaders function as drivers, case managers, and group facilitators. A primary cohesive factor appears to be the respect and trust that develops among the members and the compassion that they show to one another.

This group shows that services for a Hispanic population with major mental illnesses, that are therapeutically and cost effective, can be offered and can enhance independent community functioning. There are tasks which seem important to the continuation and effectiveness of the group. A flexible format seems essential to ensure participation of the members. Koegler and Williamson (1973) support the importance of flexibility to enhance group participation of Spanish-speaking patients. It is our experience that there needs to be at least one bilingual therapist and that it is important that the therapists be culturally sensitive and aware as this relates to the participation of the group members. Hynes and Werbin (1977) emphasized the bilingual and bicultural components as being essential to the success of group therapy with Spanish-speaking clients. They also note the importance of flexibility of the therapists as they attend to the expressed needs of their clients (Hynes and Werbin, 1975) In addition to these important features, we have found that providing transportation and small supplies as well as outreaching to this group, seemed to produce a higher degree of community stability and compliance to the useful aspects of treatment.

Karno and Edgerton (1969) note the perception of a California Mexican-American population toward psychiatric services as being irrelevant. This notion seems supported by the lack of literature on group psychotherapy. A recent survey of the literature made no references to work focusing on the issues related to group therapy with Hispanic populations (Spitz, 1984). This paper attempts to demonstrate the efficacy of a group modality for hispanic clients and is intended to encourage and stimulate more attention to an area of service delivery that is exciting and rewarding.

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Abused Child

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victim feels worthwhile by helping others, then perhaps they can begin to feel worthwhile about themselves.

Once abused children have developed an awareness of their strengths and positive esteem, the counselor should teach them self-talk. These children need to learn how to mentally compliment and encourage themselves. According to Holtgraves (1986), the use of self-talk teaches them to be less dependent of what others think of them.

In conclusion, an elementary school counselor may play a major role in helping an abused child by identifying such a child early through awareness of subtle behaviors exhibited and by intervening. Prevention programs are also needed. The school counselor should know the law and educate the staff about this law and their duty to report. School counselors need to commit themselves to providing these strategies to help break the cycle of abuse.

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The BodyRights Kit.
American Guidance Services
Publishers Building
Circle Pines, MN 55014

Kids Rights catalogue of books, films, games for children, adolescents, trainers, and parents.
3700 Progress Blvd.
Mount Dora, FL 32757
1-800-892-KIDS

National Child Abuse Hotline
1-800-422-4453

THE USE OF CIRCULAR QUESTIONING IN MARRIAGE AND FAMILY COUNSELING/THERAPY

by Robert Smith, Jean Griffin, Karen Thys, and Elaine Ryan

Abstract

"Circular Questioning" is illustrated and explored in this article. The article is based on the premise that a number of therapists with different orientations work systemically today. Therefore, marriage and family therapy may be distinguished more by particular practices considered unique to the field. One such practice is the use of circular questioning. Circular questioning as discussed in this article is considered unique while providing a clear and realistic approach for exploring the family system.

Many marriage and family therapists view the family as a system of interlocking relationships that contributes to the present functioning of the family. To investigate this systemic model, family therapists have introduced several methods for exploring the changes and differences which affect the family system. One such approach, circular questioning, provides the family with an opportunity to view itself systemically (Fleurides, Nelson & Rosenthal, 1986). The use of circular questioning or circular interviewing "alone, can and does, trigger therapeutic change" (Tomm, 1987, p. 5) in the family system. A review of circular questioning is provided in this article in an attempt to enhance the readers with insight regarding its potential use when counseling with families.

What is Circular Questioning?

Four Italian psychiatrists, Mara Selvini-Palazolli, Luigi Boscolo, Gianfranco Cecchin, and Giuliana Prata--collectively called the Milan Group--are credited with the development of circular questioning (Tomm, 1984a). They base their approach on systems theory, cybernetics, and information theory.

Specifically, circular questioning is a method of conducting an interview. Responses by the therapist are primarily questions (Tomm, 1984b). The questions are asked in order to generate information for the family about their relationships with each other. Within this process is the illumination of pattern--the systemic nature of the family. The typical family myth of the identified patient owning the presenting problem is gently disputed by asking relevant questions about family relationships and differences among them (Selvini-Pallazoli, et al, 1980). The focus is on the recursiveness of the system--what happens over and over again involving the presenting problem (Tomm, 1984a).

The systemic therapist resists giving opinions and directives although the family may invite or expect this behavior. Hence, goal-setting by the therapist is avoided (Matthews, 1984). The quality of family functioning is both defined and determined by the family.

Use of Circular Questioning

In order for circular questioning to be helpful in uncovering relevant information about the family, the Milan Group offers three guidelines: hypothesizing, circularity, and neutrality (Selvini-Palazzoli, et al, 1980). The guidelines provide a structure for the circular questioning, otherwise the aimless therapist may appear unskilled or biased.

Hypotheses should always be evolving on the basis of feedback from the family. Therapists are cautioned to avoid being so rigid in their thinking that a hypothesis becomes a belief for therein lies judgment and personal values (Tomm, 1984b).

Before a therapist greets a family, some information is available from the initial contact about their concern. All information from that contact is considered useful in developing a hypothesis which will influence the choice of questions the therapist asks in the first interview. It is important to note that the Milan Group suggests that the therapist receive the initial contact so that circular questioning, and thus information gathering, begins immediately (Tomm, 1984b). This practice circumvents the validation of the family's linear view of the presenting problem. Through this method, a wide range of perceptions and issues that take a circular characteristic are presented, rather than one or two immediate issues that are often seen as cause/effect (linear).

Though it is important for the therapist to have a hypothesis about the family's functioning before the first interview, it is equally important to loosely hold that hypothesis. Hypotheses should always be evolving on the basis of feedback from the family. Therapists are cautioned to avoid being so rigid in their thinking that a hypothesis becomes a belief for therein lies judgment and personal values (Tomm, 1984b).

Circularity is defined by the Milan Group as being ". . . the capacity of the therapist to conduct his investigation on the basis of feedback from the family in response to the information he solicits about relationships and, therefore,

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about difference and change" (Selvini-Palazolli, et al., 1980, p. 8). Circularity provides the rationale for the search of relational patterns through the use of circular questioning. The family, with a lineal epistemology, typically presents a small arc in the circular pattern (i.e., A causes B) (Tomm, 1984a). A family with a lineal epistemology sees one or two events or issues causing all of the families problems. The therapist should recognize that this is but one place to start, or punctuate, the full sequence of events, according to the premise of circularity.

The third guideline, neutrality, is perhaps the most difficult to employ. The therapist displaying neutrality conveys acceptance, respect, and a desire for understanding. Suggesting change, blaming, or taking sides is avoided. Ideally, the therapist shows acceptance by listening and gently cloaks challenges by creative, but useful questions. At the end of an interview, the family members should not be able to describe, without confusions and disagreement, the therapist's involvement in coalitions or one's opinion about the family members (Tomm, 1984b).

Types of Circular Questioning

Through the use of circular questioning, a therapist may determine how the present pattern of functioning developed, when it became troublesome, and what previous pattern existed. In this exploration of family relationships, "what" is happening is more useful than "why" it is happening.

There are basically five types of circular questions that aid in collecting this information (Selvini-Palazzoli, et al., 1980; Tomm, unpublished draft). Each type probes for either the revelation of differences or pattern. What follows is a more detailed description of each type.

Pattern Questions:

1. By questioning the pattern of events, the therapist focuses on plotting the circular sequence of interaction. What is happening in the family?
   Examples: When your wife make a sexual overture, what do you do? What does your mother do when your father has been drinking?
2. By questioning the meaning associated with the pattern of events, family members are now asked their interpretation and opinions about what they see is happening in the family.
   Examples: What does she do when you believe she is trying to get her way?
   When he plans a vacation without your knowledge, what does that mean?

Difference Questions:

3. Questioning the difference in behavior, attitude, relationships, etc. between family members is useful in mapping alignments and coalitions in the family.
   Examples: Who shows more anger when your brother comes home late, mom or dad?
   Is your son closer to you or your husband?
4. Through the use of questioning, the therapist investigates the difference in behavior, attitude, relationships, etc. between family members in regard to rank, by asking a family member who exhibits the most or least of some quality. Then, one is asked who would be next in line, and so on. Several family members should be asked their ranking on the same quality to discover family positions.
   Examples: Who was the first to notice your brother's unhappiness? Then who . . etc.?
   Who most strongly believes that you show disrespect? Who believes this the second most strongly . . . etc.?
5. Questioning the difference in behavior, attitude, relationships, etc. between family members over time purposely identifies shifts in family alignments and loyalties, and when they occurred.
   Examples: Was there more arguing before or after the birth of your first child?
   Since your brother moved back home, are you more or less distant with your father?

Though it is important to help the family determine their previous, as well as their present pattern of interaction, it is also useful to ask about the future (Penn, 1985). By virtue of directing a future-oriented question to the family, the assumption is conveyed that they are volitional beings. Hence, they begin to realize that change is of their choosing.

Examples: When your daughter goes to college, who will be more concerned for the other, you or your daughter?

After the divorce, will you be more or less independent?

These examples provide evidence of the careful purposefulness or rationale behind the use of specific questions. Random questioning is not encouraged. Well thought-out questions become natural after much experience in hypothesis building and preparation.

Conclusions

As illustrated, circular questioning can be helpful in uncovering significant information about a family. This information can be gathered in a relatively brief period of time while providing family members with interesting and different perceptions that may not have been shared previously. As such, circular questioning departs from the traditional approach in counseling which rejects the use of excessive questions.

Although implications for counselors/therapists working with families are obvious, precautions are warranted. Questions should be well thought out and not random in nature. The questioning of patterns, meaning, and differences requires a clear focus and needs to be intentional and direct. Additional background reading concerning the use of circular questions is recommended. Supervision of the use of circular questioning is also recommended prior to implementing this practice in one's own therapeutic work.

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GAY YOUTH

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right way to approach this problem; it differs with each individual situation. The student may need to talk through a fear of rejection, possible guilt at burdening his or her parents, or the fear of a breach of confidence by a friend. Whitlock (1988) advises young gays to plan ahead carefully when coming out to friends or family, asking them to put themselves in the other person's shoes and imagine how the person might feel. She also asks young gays to consider their motives before coming out to someone; wanting to hurt, shock or rebel against someone are not good motives for coming out.

Young people struggling with their sexual orientation are likely to feel very vulnerable if they choose to share their thoughts with a counselor. It is absolutely vital that the counselor respect the confidentiality of the student on this issue. A counselor unable to deal in an accepting and comfortable way with the gay student should refer the student to another counselor or to a local gay community organization. The counselor should be careful to do this in such a way that it doesn't make the student feel even worse than he or she probably already does. One tactful approach might be for the counselor to empathize, but claim ignorance on the subject of homosexuality and then to suggest another counselor, organization or even some literature to which the student could turn.

This article presents only a very basic approach to the problems gay youth face. Other related areas that merit exploration are helping parents come to grips with the knowledge that their children are gay, or helping the children of gay parents deal with the difficulties they face. Counselors may want to further explore the ethics involved in giving out information about sexuality and gay networking to gay teenagers.

Easy solutions to the difficulties that gay people face in our society do not exist, especially in schools. At a minimum, educators can create a support system for gay students and step out in their defense when necessary.

Resource Guide

Parents and Friends of Lesbians and Gays (PFLAG): National Office, P O Box 20308, Denver, CO 80220 (303) 321-2270.

"20 Questions About Homosexuality" booklet available through: National Gay and Lesbian Task Force, 1517 U Street NW, Washington, DC 20009 (202)3333-6483.

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Circular Questioning

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SCENARIO FOR THE YEAR 2000: EDUCATIONAL REFORM NO LONGER

by Jim Harris and Rich Feller

In this, the year 2000, educators have found and implemented solutions to many of the problems which seemed overwhelming ten years ago. Dropout and substance abuse rates are declining, students are motivated and achievement is up significantly. Vocational educators are proud to have played a major role in the restructuring of education that occurred in the early 1990's. This is particularly true in the North Central Region of Colorado.

In this region, the National Guidelines for Career Development have made significant impact in moving guidance to an outcome-based program effort within the Ft. Lupton, Adams 12 District, and Feeder Schools to Front Range Community College-Larimer County Center. These were the three original 1990 pilot sites. Throughout the elementary years, students are now exposed to a variety of future life activities and alternatives. Early in the middle school years, students develop flexible plans for their future including an educational plan identifying the type and purpose of courses to be taken in high school. This plan is developed within a comprehensive career development program which provides the opportunity to explore life style options in depth and to understand how particular courses lead to goals selected. In high school, this program continues to allow modification of the goals leading to the transition from high school to work and postsecondary education.

All students have learned that the choice of either college or work is obsolete in the year 2000. In a technological and information age, graduates realize that educational costs require most students to work at least part-time. And, it is clearly understood that those entering the workplace full-time must continue learning within postsecondary programs, well articulated with secondary programs. Other students see their employers providing training or contracting with local community colleges. Still others find that entering the military means training plus education that can be applied to a postsecondary degree. Clearly the workplace has become a school place and educational institutions work much more cooperatively with small and large businesses.

At the high school level, students take courses that support their tentative life goals. The line between academic and vocational training has dimmed as the integration of academic and vocational education, encouraged by the Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1990, is the rule rather than the exception. Every course taken by students has a purpose and supports their life plan and future life roles. For example, students taking geometry understand that they are preparing to become engineers, carpenters, scientists, etc. Those in English classes understand that reading and writing is needed in their short and long term future. Those taking humanities classes are pursuing an understanding and appreciation of different cultures, different times and the arts. In all classes, there is emphasis on the transferability of skills and the use of knowledge systems and information resources. All classes are a combination of applied methodology and theoretical models that lead to tomorrow's inventions and ideas. While students have learned that they are being prepared to be problem solvers, educators have learned that education is the result achieved (what happened) and not the process or input.

The number of specific job skill classes has increased dramatically and over 60 percent of all high school graduates are prepared for immediate employment and further learning. All others are prepared to enter occupational training at the postsecondary level which includes a significant dose of courses helping all students become good citizens and productive employees or entrepreneurs.

The job skills classes are integrated into the curriculum so that the vocational program consists of a combination of content, critical thinking and skill training. Where possible, the vocational programs have been articulated with postsecondary training. Most of the skills training classes are appropriate for students interested in a range of occupations. For example, many of the students in bookkeeping courses are preparing for occupations such as accounting, data processing, business management, financial management or bookkeeping.

The skills training offered has been carefully selected in light of employment opportunities and coordinated with other schools and/or businesses in the region. Where the school cannot provide the training needed in the life plan of students, they are allowed to commute to another school or to a private business for a part of their education. At a minimum, students are prepared to enter occupational training at the postsecondary level.

Of course, much of the training is cooperative with industry in the region. Where possible, students receive both academic and skill training credit in the private sector. Since all education is competency based this process has become much more attractive to all and dropout rates have dramatically fallen. This has led to flexibility in the time requirements for graduation. Many students attend high school and local community colleges simultaneously.

This scenario was developed using ideas which are currently being either explored, tested or implemented within Colorado. The authors are Jim Harris, Director of the State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee, Denver, Colorado, and Rich Feller, Professor of Counseling and Career Development at Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado.

High schools have begun to address the educational needs of the adult community. This is particularly true in the job skills area. Equipment used to train high school students in job skills during the day is used to upgrade adults in the evening. This training is carefully coordinated with local community colleges. In some cases, adult students take courses with secondary students during the normal day. The high schools have also joined with local community colleges in offering education and training for employees at the job site.

The community colleges have organized their vocational efforts to meet the personpower needs which cannot be met at the high school level. This effort involves providing the advanced training in many skill areas offered at the high school level, providing higher levels of technical training, and providing upgrading training. In addition, they are deeply involved with helping high schools organize and coordinate adult training. This effort has evolved from the need to upgrade the existing work force.

One of the major changes at the postsecondary level is the recent implementation of the Colorado Career Development Guidelines. Community colleges now provide comprehensive career development based around adult competencies and indicators within three content areas. In the content areas of self knowledge, educational and occupational exploration, adults now can be evaluated to see their level of competency attainment. (See *Adult Competencies and Indicators*)

The level and quality of training has jumped significantly in the past ten years. This has been achieved through the implementation of standards and indicators for each and every type of training. These standards are based on competencies which also helped in articulation efforts. The private sector was particularly helpful in defining competencies and setting standards for training. It is fair to say that all vocational education has reached the level of registered nurse training offered in 1990. Academic education has grown to appreciate competency based education as a contributor to the motivation and subsequent improvement of student performance and retention. Concerns over "teaching to the test" have almost ceased to exist as the general achievement in basic skills has skyrocketed.

Maximizing the impact of resources was achieved through close coordination with other human services organizations. Most, if not all, programs and education involve coordination with the JTPA service delivery areas, the Job Service, and Social Services.

For example, the region's Job Service offices provide extensive job placement efforts for graduates. Another example is the help schools receive from JTPA programs in working with special populations. Social Services expertise in the area of working with the handicapped has been particularly appreciated.

The region has implemented a comprehensive student follow-up system which provides continuous input for assessing modifications to existing training. This has helped administrators identify problem areas and to make appropriate program adjustments in remedial, skill training and career development program components.

Finally, all levels of education are closely coordinated with economic development programs. Further, economic development has been defined to include helping existing business and industry expand and prosper. This effort includes working closely with business and industry in the modification of obsolete training and new programs, as well as providing for the self knowledge, educational and occupational exploration, and career planning needs of all workers.

A consortium of local administrators in the region provide overall coordination for all vocational programs. They meet monthly to organize policy on professional development, coordinate the development of training, set regional standards, and share ideas about administration at the institution level. It seems like a long time since "school reform" was the buzzword.

ADULT COMPETENCIES AND INDICATORS

Self Knowledge

Competency I: Skills to maintain a positive self concept.

- Demonstrate a positive self-concept.
- Identify skills, abilities, interests, experiences, values, and personality traits and their influence on career decisions.
- Identify achievements related to work, learning, and leisure and their influence on self perception.
- Demonstrate a realistic understanding of self.

Competency II: Skills to maintain effective behaviors.

- Demonstrate appropriate interpersonal skills in expressing feelings and ideas.
- Identify symptoms of stress.
- Demonstrate skills to overcome self-defeating behaviors.
- Demonstrate skills in identifying support and networking arrangements (including role models).
- Demonstrate skills to manage financial resources.

Competency III: Understanding developmental changes and transitions.

- Describe how personal motivations and aspirations may change over time.
- Describe physical changes that occur with age and adapt work performance to accommodate these.
- Identify external events (e.g., job loss, job transfer) that require life changes.

Educational and Occupational Exploration

Competency IV: Skills to enter and participate in education and training.

- Describe short- and long-range plans to achieve career goals through appropriate educational paths.
- Identify information that describes educational opportunities (e.g., job training programs, employer-sponsored training, graduate and professional study).
- Describe community resources to support education and training (e.g., child care, public transportation, public health

services, mental health services, welfare benefits).

- Identify strategies to overcome personal barriers to education and training.

Competency V: Skills to participate in work and life-long learning.

- Demonstrate confidence in the ability to achieve learning activities (e.g., studying taking tests).
- Describe how educational achievements and life experiences relate to occupational opportunities.
- Describe organizational resources to support education and training (e.g., remedial classes, counseling, tuition support).

Competency VI: Skills to locate, evaluate and interpret information.

- Identify and use current career information resources (e.g., computerized career information systems, print and media materials, mentors).
- Describe information related to self-assessment, career planning, occupations, prospective employers, organizational structures, and employer expectations.
- Describe the uses and limitations of occupational outlook information.
- Identify the diverse job opportunities available to an individual with a given set of occupational skills.
- Identify opportunities available through self-employment.
- Identify factors that contribute to misinformation about occupations.
- Describe information about specific employers and hiring practices.

Competency VII: Skills to prepare to seek, obtain, maintain, and change jobs.

- Identify specific employment situations that match desired career objectives.
- Demonstrate skills to identify job openings.
- Demonstrate skills to establish a job search network through colleagues, friends, and family.
- Demonstrate skills in preparing a resume and completing job applications.
- Demonstrate skills and attitudes essential to prepare for and participate in a successful job interview.
- Demonstrate effective work attitudes and behaviors.
- Describe changes (e.g., personal growth, technological developments, changes in demand for products or services) that influence the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for job success.
- Demonstrate strategies to support occupational change (e.g., on-the-job training, career ladders, mentors, performance ratings, networking, continuing education).
- Describe career planning and placement services available through organizations (e.g., educational institutions, business/industry, labor, and community agencies).
- Identify skills that are transferrable from one job to another.

Competency VIII: Understanding how the needs and functions of society influence the nature and structure of work.

- Describe the importance of work as it affects values and life style.
- Describe how society's needs and functions affect occupational supply and demand.
- Describe occupational, industrial, and technological trends as they relate to training programs and employment opportunities.
- Demonstrate an understanding of the global economy and how it affects the individual.

Career Planning

Competency IX: Skills to make decisions.

- Describe personal criteria for making decisions about education, training, and career goals.
- Demonstrate skills to assess occupational opportunities in terms of advancement, management styles, work environment, benefits and other conditions of employment.
- Describe the effects of education, work, and family decisions on individual career decisions.
- Identify personal and environmental conditions that affect decision-making.
- Demonstrate effective career decision making skills.
- Describe potential consequences of decisions.

Competency X: Understanding the impact of work on individual and family life.

- Describe how family and leisure functions affect occupational roles and decisions.
- Determine effects of individual and family developmental stages on one's career.
- Describe how work, family, and leisure activities interrelate.
- Describe strategies for negotiating work, family and leisure demands with family members (e.g., assertiveness and time management skills).

Competency XI: Understanding the continuing changes in male/female roles.

- Describe recent changes in gender norms and attitudes.
- Describe trends in the gender composition of the labor force and assess implications for one's own career plans.
- Identify disadvantages of stereotyping occupations.
- Demonstrate behaviors, attitudes, and skills that work to eliminate stereotyping in education, family, and occupational environments.

Competency XII: Skills to make career transitions.

- Identify transition activities (e.g., reassessment of current position, occupational changes) as a normal aspect of career development.
- Describe strategies to use during transitions (e.g., networks, stress management).
- Describe skills needed for self-employment (e.g., developing a business plan, determining marketing strategies, developing sources of capital).
- Describe the skills and knowledge needed for pre-retirement planning.
- Develop an individual career plan, updating information from earlier plans and including short- and long-range career decisions.

For further information about Colorado's effort to adapt the National Career Development Guidelines, an initiative funded by the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee and the Colorado Community College and Occupational Education System, contact Martelle Chapital at (303) 620-4000.

WELLNESS AND SELF-CARE: SUGGESTIONS FOR COUNSELORS AND OTHER ROLE MODELS

by Nathalie Kees and Janet Trever

Abstract

Helping professionals are often looked upon as role models by those they serve. Because of the demands on their time and talents, it is often difficult to model the type of healthy lifestyle prescribed to others. This article provides suggestions for developing wellness in one's life as well as a framework for making healthy choices.

Introduction

During a recent meeting of people in the helping professions, the topic of self-care was discussed. Many of those present acknowledged that they were not leading a healthy lifestyle nor modeling the wellness theme they were expounding in their presentations, classes, and counseling sessions. Several acknowledged working incredibly long hours. One admitted to working the past twenty-one days in a row without a break. Students and staff added that they felt a great deal of pressure to perform as superstars in their jobs and faced negative evaluation from peers and supervisors if they didn't conform to the "driven" pattern established as the norm.

Nearly every moment of every day one is faced with opportunities to make choices concerning wellness; a client calls, a student or co-worker asks for help, the answering machine holds ten to twenty messages. The arrival of the daily mail alone can require one to make a myriad of choices. How are these choices made? Oftentimes it is the framework for making choices that is faulty or perhaps nonexistent. The purpose of this article is to provide a suggested framework for choosing and creating a healthier lifestyle so that those in the helping professions can become true models for others.

Background

Wellness has been defined as "a conscious and deliberate approach to an advanced state of physical and psychological/spiritual health" (Ardell, 1983, p.3). It is an approach to living that is characterized as balanced, positive, and fun, and which provides a systematic framework for choosing and accomplishing goals (Ardell, 1983). Although developing and maintaining this balanced and conscious approach to life is a goal desired by many, it is a difficult one to attain and becoming more difficult as the pace of living increases (Gibbs, 1989).

A traditional and important role of helping professionals has been that of modeling the types of desirable and healthy behaviors expected of clients, students, and helpees (Berretta, 1988; Godenne, 1982; Kaufmann, 1986; Schmidt & Wolfe, 1980). Role modeling can be a very powerful tool in helping others make desired changes (Beretta, 1988). Developing a framework for choosing wellness is essential for helping professionals who wish to be congruent role models. The following are six suggestions for creating a healthier and more balanced life.

Six Suggestions for Choosing Wellness

Suggestion #1–Develop an awareness of the choices you are now making.

The first step in this process is the acknowledgement that we do have choices; that we always have a choice. Corey (1989) suggested that one of the major stumbling blocks toward making change is ignorance and/or denial of the fact that we do have a choice. In actuality we make hundreds of choices daily, hourly, and almost every minute. If we can become aware of how we are making those choices we can begin to make the conscious choices needed for creating wellness.

Becoming aware of the choices we are now making is essential. One way to do this is to take some time at the end of each day and reflect upon the choices you made. Logging choices periodically throughout the day may help. As you analyze your choices, you may ask if they were consciously or unconsciously determined. Were they made out of habit, ritual, or compulsion, or based on forethought?

It will also be helpful to determine whether the choices made are leading toward or away from wellness. Fromm (1973) categorized all choices as either biophilic, leading toward life, or necrophilic, leading toward death. In the initial stage of developing a wellness lifestyle, it will be helpful to group the choices made each day into one of those two categories. It can also be helpful to get input from others concerning the choices they see you making.

Suggestion #2–Create a support system which encourages wellness.

It is human nature to be influenced by the people around us. Therefore, it is important to make an honest evaluation of the people, environs, and systems with which you have the most contact by employing the following steps. One, without criticizing or making any changes, observe the support system you now have. Two, evaluate your work, home, and social environment, the people you have contact with in these environments, and the systems in which you are involved. Three, determine whether they encourage or

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discourage wellness by utilizing the following questions:

Work, Home and Social Environments:

- Do you have a quiet, uncluttered place at home to be alone when needed?
- Is your work environment conducive to accomplishing what you want to accomplish?
- Do your social environments promote or inhibit wellness?

Family, Friends, and Colleagues:

- Which people in your life support your ability to choose what you need and which undermine your efforts, perhaps even encouraging you away from wellness?
- Which people in your life demonstrate through words and actions that they believe you have a right to choose what you need or want?
- Which people in your life are able to acknowledge that you may sometimes need to put your needs before theirs?
- Do you encourage and accept feedback from others concerning the choices you are making now?

Work, Home, and Social Systems:

- What is the work ethic promoted in your work environment?
- How does your work environment help or hinder your productivity?
- What are the unspoken rules that guide behavior at work, in your family, and with your friends?
- How well do your family members communicate, trust, and show caring for each other?
- What relationship do you have with your family members and friends? Is it one of dependence where they expect you to take care of them and fulfill their needs, or do you have a healthy level of interdependence?

Once you have taken stock of your current support system, you can add or change whatever you feel necessary in order to provide yourself with people and an atmosphere that will encourage your move toward wellness. Healthy choices are easier to make when we surround ourselves with people who believe in and model wellness in an atmosphere that supports the same.

Suggestion #3--Evaluate your current *criteria for making choices* and develop a *belief structure* which supports wellness.

Although it is not within the scope of this article to describe all of the belief structures we use to make choices, it will be helpful to discuss a few of the major beliefs which promote or inhibit wellness.

Often, choices are made based on irrational beliefs such as believing we are indispensable, believing something catastrophic will occur if we don't do everything that is asked of us, or believing that we do not have a choice. Making choices because we believe we must or should or have no other choice will often cause a feeling of being trapped which in turn creates stress.

We may also believe others will think less of us or not like us or that we will ruin our reputation as being capable of doing anything and everything. The part that is reinforcing in this is that there may be some negative consequences involved with the choices that we make. In actuality, we need to accept the fact that there will always be consequences of our choices. The important decision-making step is determining which consequences we are willing to accept. Too often we are willing to accept the negative consequences of being tired, unhealthy, rushed, panicked, irritable, overbooked, and overworked as inevitable in order to avoid facing the possibility of other negative consequences such as: disapproval, missed promotions, or not feeling needed or important.

At the core of your belief structure you will need to determine whether or not you believe you deserve wellness and have the right to choose how you want to live your life. Another helpful strategy in developing an awareness of your belief system is to take a walk by yourself in the middle of the afternoon on a work day and observe your thoughts and feelings. Do you begin to hear an inner voice saying things like, "This isn't the way it's suppose to be," "I should be working." If you do, begin to challenge this inner voice by asking, "Where it is written that taking a walk is wasting time?"

A traditional and important role of helping professionals has been that of modeling the types of desirable and healthy behaviors expected of clients, students and helpees...Developing a framework for choosing wellness is essential for helping professionals who wish to be congruent role models.

Many of our unhealthy belief structures center around our concept of time. There is a major misconception in our society that we are able to save time. Although there are numerous appliances and devices which allow us to do activities more quickly, how many of us actually feel like we have more time? This is because time is a set commodity and that we cannot save it. We can only decide how we will spend it. Our task is to choose to spend it wisely and consciously.

The phenomenon of the appointment book is a good example of this. Day-Timers, Inc., a multi-million dollar company, produces a 96-page catalog filled with devices for managing time and increasing productivity. A colleague recently mentioned that he had spent over $100.00 on his Day-Timer system this year. As an organizational tool, an appointment and record keeping system is essential. However, often we misuse this tool as a basis for making daily choices. We create misconceptions about what an appointment book is and what it can do. A filled appointment book can easily become a measure of our self-worth. In reality it is not even a good measure of our productivity. We begin to make commitments based on the amount of blank space in the appointment book rather than questioning whether we want to commit or not. We may also allow the appointment book to provide us with a false sense of control--that keeping track of and being able to cope with all of our responsibilities is the same thing. It is important to remember that all an appointment book can do is provide us with a diagram of the weeks, days, hours, and minutes we have to spend. A helpful strategy is to look through your appointment book for the last few weeks and examine the choices you've recently made. How many of those choices were made out of feelings of responsibility or guilt? How many were made with little forethought or simply because your appointment book had an empty space? Try thinking about what you consider to be the top three priorities or values in your life and ask yourself "How many of your choices are congruent with those values?" (Dornan, 1989).

After determining more clearly what your belief structure is you can begin the process of disputing the truth of your beliefs, discarding old beliefs that are no longer useful, and creating a new set of beliefs that enable you to choose wellness. Some examples of beliefs which can promote wellness are:

I have a right to choose and create my life.

I deserve a life that promotes wellness.

There are no shoulds, only choices.

I can take care of myself so that I may be able to continue to help others.

I can choose to say yes or no without feeling guilty or resentful.

Suggestion #4–Develop and nurture your internal guidance system.

Often it is difficult to maintain choices that promote wellness because we are using an external basis for decision making. Choices based on external expectations and established norms rather than internal values, beliefs, and needs will lead toward a feeling of incongruence. This feeling of incongruence causes additional stress and may inhibit your efforts to seek wellness. Sinetar (1988) described the internal guidance system in this way:

> There is, in us, a part-that-knows what we should do . . . The separation from self is what causes us to act against our best interests. When disconnected, fear dominates, and self-doubt, self-flagellations and untruthfulness abound. It is then that we betray ourselves, go against the part-that-knows, because we are acting from a point of self-betrayal. While fragmented, our deficits control us. We cannot be counted upon to think or act rightly (p. 18-19).

We are able to come into contact with our internal guidance system by giving ourselves time alone each day to think, to process the events of the day, and to evaluate the choices we made. We need to give ourselves time to answer important questions such as: "How do I feel about the choices I made today?", "How congruent do I feel?", "How well did my choices match up with my beliefs and values?", "What do I want to do with tomorrow?" One question asked regularly of the senior author by her mentor during her doctoral work was, "Are you having fun?" This constant reminder to assess how I was spending my time, helped me to connect with my internal guidance system and reminded me to either enjoy what I was doing or to choose differently. Once we are able to recognize this internal guidance system, accessing it on a regular and more immediate basis will become easier.

Suggestion #5–Simplify.

Although "having it all" became the slogan of the 80's, it has also become a prescription for an unhealthy way of life. Choosing less can lead to having more--more enjoyment, more appreciation for people, things, and activities already in your life, more balance and peace of mind, and better health and well-being. Every choice must be made with the awareness that if we take something else into our lives, we will have less time for what we already have. Choosing less in order to obtain balance is the most difficult and important choice of all.

Suggestion #6--Practice choosing consciously. Practice daily.

Developing a wellness lifestyle requires that one consistently make conscious choices. The following is a model for choosing more consciously.

Step 1 Whenever possible (and it is almost always possible) stop to think before you choose. Habitual rather than conscious choices may often maintain unhealthy patterns. When making a major choice or one that will require a great time commitment, allow yourself at least twenty-four hours before giving an answer.

Step 2 If another party is involved, be willing to ask the questions and gather the information you'll need in order to make a conscious and well-informed choice.

Step 3 Take the time to ask and honestly answer questions of yourself. A few suggestions might include:
Why am I choosing this?
What are the short-term benefits and consequences?
What are the long-term benefits and consequences?
If I don't choose this, what will I give up?
If I do choose this, what will I have to give up?
What am I willing to give up?
What effect will this choice have on others in my life?
How does this choice fit with my internal guidance system?
Is there a creative alternative that I am overlooking which may accomplish the task and also provide for wellness?

Step 4 Be willing to decide and then move on. Whatever your choice is, give it from a place of strength rather than guilt or obligation. In the long run, no one will be very happy with your choice if you are not happy with it. Be sure you have made your choice willingly, whatever that choice may be. Even if you made that choice because you felt it was in the best interest of someone other than yourself, accept your decision and give it willingly, as a gift. It is important to remember, however, that we also deserve gifts at times, and that if we always put ourselves last, we will very quickly deplete ourselves of anything worth giving to others. Perhaps the greatest discipline in making healthy choices is the willingness to say no to ourselves and to others and to do so without prolonged regret or guilt.

Step 5 Evaluate the implementation of your choice. Often times we forget to monitor the implementation of our choices and then find ourselves wondering, "What happened? It seemed like a good idea at the time." To do this requires a continued connection with our internal guidance system. We need to be able to continue asking ourselves questions such as:

How healthy is my implementation of this choice?
How am I feeling as a result of this choice?
If it's not working, why not? What went wrong?

Many people make what seem to be choices toward wellness and then do not experience the positive results they were expecting. An example of this is choosing to join a health club and then using this as another opportunity to feel guilty for not going, or, to "work hard" and compulsively at one more thing. So that what began as a movement toward health can very easily add to the original stressful lifestyle. The reasons for this are often the same faulty thinking that caused the original pattern of unhealth--irrational beliefs such as: "I must be perfect," "I must be responsible for others," "There is only one right way of doing things," "My self worth is measured by what we do or produce." Again, a constant connection with one's internal guidance system during implementation of choices is crucial.

Step 6 Be willing to redecide if necessary. Many of us were raised with the belief that once you make a decision you must stick to it and follow through at all costs. This type of thinking can cause as much difficulty as not making wise choices originally. It is rare that we are going to be able to know beforehand all of the consequences of the choices that we make. Therefore, it is essential to give ourselves permission to redecide if necessary without the guilt that we often take on. Beliefs statements such as: "I should have known better," "It's my fault," "I made my bed, now I better sleep in it," "I can't go back on my word," and "Others will think less of me or not trust me if I don't do this" will cause anger, resentment, and feelings of being trapped. These beliefs will also cause a never-ending cycle of choices which lead away from wellness. We need to allow ourselves options and opportunities for finding other creative solutions. Our opportunities for making choices are truly endless.

Step 7 Practice often. Each day and nearly every minute we are faced with choices to make. Practicing on the daily and hourly choices we are given is a way to increase readiness for the more important choices that will present themselves. It is the innumerable, everyday choices that we make which provide a moment-to-moment practice field for choosing wellness and self-care.

Sinetar (1988) asked an important question:

> "Which way are we headed? Toward health and wholeness or toward self-pity, withdrawal, neuroticism, and malfunction? . . . What heals us, what begins our self-renewal--thus, I believe, promoting actualization--can be just some tiny act. Even the right thought can help if we're too discouraged, too exhausted, to act. The mere flick of an eye in the elegant (conscious) direction, coupled with our intent to bring our more whole self into being, begins our gradual move into more productive ways of choosing (p. 18).

Summary

M. Scott Peck (1978) stated that "life is difficult" and that when we accept that fact, life becomes easier. Choosing a lifestyle which provides for wellness and self-care is also difficult, and perhaps the ultimate challenge for those in the helping professions. Once we accept this fact, it too becomes easier.

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KEEPING LIFE IN BALANCE:
A REFLECTIVE COMMENTARY FOR COUNSELORS AND COUNSELOR EDUCATORS

by Molly B. Vass

Abstract

In a high tech, fast paced world it is difficult to keep our personal and professional lives in balance. With unlimited opportunities it becomes more difficult to evaluate the consequences of choices that we make on our overall health and well-being. This article explores the challenges that we face in trying to maintain a healthy perspective.

Today, more than ever, in a fast-paced, high-tech world, the choices that confront each of us are unlimited. How we deal with daily choices helps determine the quality of our lives and relationships. But with unlimited choices comes great responsibility and a feeling of being overwhelmed with the demands on our time and energy. It is difficult to say no to opportunities that come our way and yet choosing less of these may ultimately give us a better quality life. How do we slow down in a speeded up world when everything around us impels us to do more, choose more and be more? It is difficult to let others pass us by when the external reinforcement goes to those who are outwardly achieving.

In a recent article, Goodman (1989) discusses the emphasis on efficiency and time saving in our culture. Goodman states, "These thoroughly modern times place a wider range of demands on every individual. We are supposed to be responsible for work, family, lowering our cholesterol, raising our computer literacy, actualizing our lives and becoming ecologically sensitive--all at the same time."

The pressure to fulfill our potential has become great and we may inadvertently pass that on to our students and clients. Over the last ten years of working as a counselor and counselor educator, I have become aware of the fine line that we walk between supporting the personal growth of students and clients, and adding to the pressure upon them to live up to their potential. Have we emphasized personal and professional growth to the point that it is difficult to find a healthy balance in our lives?

There seems to be an implicit guiding principle that we must be all, have all, and experience all in order to be happy. This guiding principle has an upside as well as a downside. The positive aspects are more obvious (e.g., learning, growing, achieving, advancing), but the negative impact has received less attention. There seems to be a delicate balance of enough stimulation and productivity which, when exceeded, causes the quality of our lives, relationships and health to diminish. How do we learn to draw the line in our own lives and help others to do the same? It isn't easy to say no, especially to attractive opportunities. It is all the more difficult because of the tremendous reinforcement for over-achievement in our personal and professional lives.

The eighties has been a decade of accelerating the pace of life. The importance of time efficiency is reflected most clearly in the kinds of consumer products that are now part of our daily lives (e.g., car phones, phone interrupt, fax machines, and microwave ovens). Being able to do more than one thing at a time has become the symbol of success. One of my colleagues was recently discussing how he could now ride his exercise, bike, grade papers and listen to student taped counseling sessions all at the same time. According to the current emphasis on time efficiency, he has succeeded. But what expense do we pay for all this efficiency? What kinds of lives are we living? Are we caught in the process of choosing things that leave us feeling overwhelmed and out of balance? As our lives become more complex, it seems difficult to know how to simplify. It seems to be much easier to add something to our dialy acitaivites than it is to reduce our responsibilities.

Goodman states, "These thoroughly modern times place a wider range of demands on every individual. We are supposed to be responsible for work, family, lowering our cholesterol, raising our computer literacy, actualizing our lives and becoming ecologically sensitive--all at the same time."

Learning to give things up may be necessary to bring our lives back in balance, but in order to do this it is important to look at how we perceive loss and letting go. The tendency is to look at what we are losing rather than what we may be gaining. Our concept of loss can make it difficult to let go. And yet, letting go may be exactly what we need to do to bring our lives back in balance. Can we say no to some opportunities and live with ourselves without feeling guilty that someone will soon surpass us in recognition and achievement?

Kopp (1986) uses the Hindu concepts of samsara and nirvana to make the point that how we look at loss has a lot to do with the quality of our lives. He states that "there is no nirvana without samsara" which means that there are no gains or states of contentment that can be reached without pain, loss and letting go. Perceiving loss as a gift or gain is

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a new perspective that may help us let go of things that keep us feeling overwhelmed and uncentered.

Applying this concept to the daily choices that we face helps to create a perspective that allows us to look at both the losses and gains of any choice we make. Holding on to certain values or "value rigidity" as described by Pirsig (1974) can prevent us from seeing the consequences of the choices that we are making. We get caught holding onto a thought or behavior that may be destructive to our health and well being. Pirsig uses an analogy to help make this point clear:

> The most striking example of value rigidity I can think of is the old South Indian Monkey Trap, which depends on value rigidity for its effectiveness. The trap consists of a hollowed out coconut chained to a stake. The coconut has some rice inside which can be grabbed through a small hole. The hole is big enough so that the monkey's hand can go in, but too small for his fist with rice in it to come out. The monkey reaches in and is suddenly trapped--by nothing more than his own value rigidity. He can't revalue the rice. He cannot see that freedom without rice is more valuable than capture with it. (p. 306)

It is easy to see the monkey's dilemma, but applied to ourselves, what do we hold onto that causes us stress, ill-health and unhappiness? Now, the beginning of the last decade of the century, is a good time to reflect on ourselves and the choices that we are making. The ability to help others stems directly from our own inner work. In our own busyness we do not want to lose the big picture. Reevaluating the choices that we are making may be a starting point in this direction.

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FROM COMPUTER TO VIDEO TECHNOLOGY

Continued from Page 11

November 14, 1989), however, they provide "suggested guidelines for selecting video telecasts." Many vendors of education videotapes utilize their own evaluation forms in seeking feedback from the users of their products.

Major tasks involved in the development included the identification of appropriate criteria; creation of operational definitions of each criterion; establishment of an objective rating system for differentiation and evaluation; inclusion of the National Career Development Guidelines as a basis of evaluation; opportunities for subjective, narrative comments; and packaging within a short, easy-to-understand and user-friendly form. Several early forms were drafted, pilot-tested, discarded or revised. Finally, a satisfactory draft was created and used throughout the 1989-90 Colorado Career Guidance Video Review Project. Feedback on the form was solicited from each reviewer. A revised form, incorporating what was learned from the Colorado Project will be created and used in the next phases of the video project.

While accountability and educational reform requires evaluation of all counselor methods and tools, it is believed that video technology also must undergo critique. While there is great hope for both computer and video use within guidance and career development programs, little change will occur unless counselors join in.

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USING AN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING FORMAT IN A COLLEGE ORIENTATION

by Bruce Manley and Lee Gault

Abstract

This article describes the application of experiential learning theory in a community college orientation program. At the orientation's core was a small group problem-solving task which involved completing a self-guided tour of the campus. A theoretical perspective is offered through presenting an overview of Kolb's experiential learning model. Participants' evaluations are reported and were positive. The authors advocate increased use of experiential theory and methods.

"I hear and I forget, I see and I remember, I do and I understand," -- Confucius (cited in Kolb, Rubin, and McIntyre, 1971). Everyone, at sometime, has experienced the "I hear and I forget," portion of Confucius' quote. Who has not sat bored and inattentive through a lecture, remembering little or nothing of its content? Perhaps the material was of no interest. But sometimes, even when the material was of interest, involvement and attention flagged and consequently so did memory of the presentation. Orientations which are lecture style can be especially ineffective because (a) the many names, dates, procedures, resources, and new terminology create information overload for listeners and (b) the anxieties of a new situation prevent all but the most highly skilled listeners from maintaining attention and retaining the deluge of information.

The authors developed an alternative style of orientation for new students at Front Range Community College. Rather than depending entirely upon participants' passive reception and cognition, the alternative orientation program balanced passive processes with active participation. Active participation improves upon the lecture style because it enlists more of participants' senses, energizes them through their active involvement, and engages their affective as well as cognitive processes. Information and learning are associated in a multitude of ways and memory is increased. For example, actually visiting the records office and seeing a drop-add form should lead to better recall than merely hearing about the office and its functions.

This article first describes the orientation program. Second, it presents an overview of Kolb's (1976, 1981) experiential learning model as a theoretical perspective. Third, participants' evaluations are reported. In conclusion, the authors advocate increased use of experiential methods and Kolb's model.

Program Description

At the core of the orientation program was a small group problem-solving task. The small group's task was to physically navigate the school building by following printed instructions, thus conducting a self-guided tour of the school. Students and staff agreed that their first impressions of the facility included intimidation and confusion. The building is 180 feet wide and over 900 feet long (three football fields). It is organized along two long main hallways which run its full length. The two main hallways are on different levels, directly above and below each other. The usual parking-lot level entrances enter the top hallway. To visit the library, as well as other important locations, requires going down stairs to the second main hallway. Although essentially straight, the lower hallway contains two short turns which disorient newcomers. High ceilings and openness between levels further confuse and intimidate newcomers.

The small group's task was essentially an indoor orienteering exercise which was inspired by Outward Bound (Godfrey, 1980; Miner & Boldt, 1981). The authors, like others in education, have been significantly influenced by Outward Bound. Miner and Boldt cite many examples of Outward Bound's influence on education, including two of the first programs in the United States. Both were in Colorado, one at Denver's East High School and the other at the University of Northern Colorado. For other examples, see Nicholson and Golson (1983) and Webster (1978).

Objectives of the orientation were both cognitive and affective. Objectives included (a) acquainting new students with the building's layout; (b) providing them information critical for registration and for success in their first semester; (c) introducing new students to each other as well as staff; (d) providing a pleasant first-time experience of the college, in part, by having some fun; and (e) reducing their fears, building self-confidence, and empowering them.

Over 700 new students participated in the orientation program during a two year period. Specific data about the characteristics of the orientation participants were not collected. However, participants appeared to be representative of students attending the school (See Table 1). Because the majority of students were part-time, juggling the responsibilities of work and families, the orientation was intentionally short. It lasted from 1 to 1-1/2 hours.

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The authors thank Ronald Young. His enthusiasm and vision, and his support of and confidence in the authors were critical to the development of the orientation program.

Table 1
Student Body Characteristics (1984-1986)

A. Median age 28 years
B. 28% Full-time -- average load of 15 credits
72% Part-time -- average load of 5 credits
C. 75% Working while in school (estimated)
D. 63% Occupational majors
37% General studies majors
E. 59% Female
41% Male
F. 14% Minority (7% Hispanic, 4% Asian, 2% other)
85% White (not Hispanic)
1% Information not available

Arriving at an orientation session, participants were organized into small, intentionally leaderless, groups of four to six members. They were given handbooks which contained information and advice useful to new students as well as the instructions for navigating the school. A facilitator welcomes them, explained the orientation process, and told members within each small group to introduce themselves to each other. Then each small group used the handbook's instructions to conduct a self-guided tour of the school building.

Using the printed instructions to find reference points and key locations, the small groups independently learned their way around the building, found colored posters with information and questions, and read parts of the handbooks for more information and questions. The questions helped them learn about registration, procedures, resources, and advising. Trivia tasks were included to keep the mood light. Two examples, they (a) counted the birds in a colorful mural and (b) found a famous name in a hallway of historical photographs. After approximately 30 minutes, they returned to the starting point at a pre-appointed time for a wrap-up which included emphasis of key points, as well as questions and answers.

Theoretical Perspective

Sugarman (1985) advocated use of Kolb's model as a comprehensive perspective for conceptualizing the learning process and for designing balanced programs. The model employs two dimensions: the concrete-abstract dimension and the active-reflective dimension. The concrete-abstract dimension ranges from immediate involvement with the tangible at one extreme to detached analysis and generalization at the opposite end. The active-reflective dimension is represented at one pole by the person who wants to participate, to do something, and at the other pole by the person who prefers to observe events. Kolb integrated these two dimensions to create a cyclic model of learning with four stages: concrete experience (CE); reflective observation (RO); abstract conceptualization (AC); and active experimentation (AE). After active experimentation, the cycle repeats itself, beginning again with concrete experience.

An example from the orientation is illustrative. At the beginning of the program participants could have been feeling anxious and unsure, each believing that she or he alone was ignorant of the complexities of starting school, CE. Participating in the group, members observed others' nervousness and lack of knowledge, RO. Next, they may well have surmised that people starting new experiences tend to be nervous and unknowledgable, AC. Last, they may have expressed their own nervousness and ignorance, AE, leading them to the relief of expressing their feelings and to the bonding between people who do so, again CE.

Kolb's model works equally well for analyzing other types of learning, for example, computer programming, teaching, counseling, and medicine. Numerous specific examples are possible from the orientation and from activities in other fields but space limitations prohibit it.

Kolb's model implicitly incorporates the affective and cognitive dimensions mentioned above; (a) affective processes are predominantly associated with the AE and CE stages, and (b) cognitive processes are predominantly associated with the RO and AC stages.

People tend to prefer one or two of the stages, that is, people have different learning styles. They may possibly be better skilled in their preferred style. Although Kolb uses a slightly different scheme and terminology, for the purposes here, learners can be classified as CEs, ROs, ACs, or AEs. Reading, watching, listening, and the lecture style of presentation is most effective for ROs and ACs. Learning by doing, for example, internships, cooperative education placements, shop classes, and labs, is most effective for AEs and CEs.

The most effective learners are flexible. They can change their style and move with flexibility from one stage to the next. Similarly, the most effective learning programs incorporate all four stages, addressing all four learning styles. Thus, the most effective educational programs may include lecturing but they also use other means to provide students with the opportunity to expand their repertoire of learning skills as well as be comfortable and competent within their preferred style. The orientation program incorporated all four stages of Kolb's cycle, thus addressing all four learning styles.

Participants' Evaluation

Of the over 700 participants, 483 were given post-session evaluation questionnaires, and 413 returned them (85.5%). The authors experimented with several variations of evaluation forms. Items and data reported in Table 2 are representative of the various questions that were used and the results that were obtained.

Evaluation results were highly positive. Specifically, closed items 1 and 2 (see Table 2) show that the great majority of participants found the orientation to be of value. Item 3 shows that the affective objective of "having some fun" was achieved. Although recognizing the limitations of self-report on assessment of cognitive variables, the authors construe item 4 to be an indicator that cognitive

Table 2
Evaluation Results

	Responses			
Closed items	Yes	No	Undecided	Total
1. I would recommend orientation to a friend	148 (93%)	6 (4%)	6 (4%)	160a (100%)
2. Orientation was a waste of my time	3 (2%)	152 (95%)	5 (3%)	160 (100%)
3. Orientation was fun	141 (88%)	6 (4%)	13 (8%)	160 (100%)
4. I learned a lot today	135 (84%)	8 (5%)	17 (11%)	160 (100%)

	Responses		
Open-ended items	Tour	Group	Total
5. I liked the way . . .	83 (34%)	27 (16%)	243b (100%)
6. What was most helpful to you today?	89 (52%)	13 (8%)	170c (100%)

Note. a177 evaluations distributed, 90% return-rate.
b291 evaluations distributed, 84% return-rate.
c192 evaluations distributed, 89% return-rate.

objectives were achieved to some unknown degree. (A pilot pretest-posttest evaluation of cognitive objectives was unsuccessful, yielding meaningless data.)

Content analysis of open-ended evaluation items yielded results supporting the active and participatory component of the program's design. To item 5, an affective measure, 34% of the respondents mentioned the "tour," learning their way around," or working to that effect. To item 6, a self-report of cognitive learning, 52% similarly responded about the tour. The groups were the next most cited topic but were mentioned at much lower rates, 16% and 8%. No other topic was mentioned at a rate greater than 2%.

Prior to its inception, there was some concern among the staff that older students wouldn't be receptive to the relatively unusual program. But after the project began, the authors observed the exact opposite, as well as differing responses according to gender. Although data on the orientation participants' characteristics were not collected, the authors casual observations were that young traditional-age male students appeared least receptive to the program, whereas, older nontraditional-age female students were the most enthusiastic, some very much so. Female participants of all ages seemed to be the most expressive about their enjoyment of and usefulness of the tour and the small group interactions. Rigorous inquiry in this area would be of interest because objections to the programs' orienteering format were, and perhaps are, that it is inappropriate for adults.

The evaluation survey's positive results and the authors' informal observations lead them to believe that the experiential orientation project was effective. However, well controlled rigorous inquiry comparing pure lecture style with an experiential format would be worthwhile.

Recommendations

The participants' positive evaluation of the project supports consideration of increased use of experiential methods. The authors believe experiential methods could be used far more broadly than currently practiced and with similar results. Early in the century, Dewey advocated education in a social context with means and objectives in both cognitive and affective domains (Ozmon & Carver, 1986). Although examples of experiential education consistent with his views can be found (e.g. outdoor education, and cooperative education programs), much more should be done, especially considering that the prevailing lecture style favors the RO and AC learning styles, leaving the AE and CE learning styles largely unaddressed.

Increasing use of Kolb's model is also desirable. Its applicability far exceed the scope discussed in this article. Three examples: (a) Kolb et al. published a business school management text using experiential learning principles, (b) Sugarman showed how Kolb's cycle can represent the counseling process and (c) the first author taught Kolb's model to career planning groups as a means to predict, understand, and benefit from their experience (See Blake & Mouton, Chapters 2-7, 1983, for a general discussion of theory-principles interventions regarding the specific career planning example.)

Summary

This article described an orientation using experiential learning principles with a small group orienteering task as its focal point. The orienteering task was derived from Outward Bound practices. Kolb's four part experiential learning model was outlined to provide a clear conceptual perspective of the program. Evaluation results supported the use of experiential methods in the orientation project. Both experiential learning methods and Kolb's model could be used more than currently practiced, especially considering that prevalent educational norms do not address all learning styles.

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A COMPARISON OF FEEDBACK CONDITIONS IN "BUG-IN-THE-EAR" COUNSELOR TRAINING

by Daniel J. Mosley, John Ramirez, Lamar Trant

Abstract

This study compared the effectiveness of verbal reinforcement, prompts, and prompts plus reinforcement using the "Bug-in-the-Ear" with 30 counselor trainees over a period of ten counseling sessions. The overall multivariate analysis failed to achieve significance. Reasons for not finding differences and directions for future research were discussed.

The study of the components involved in the successful teaching and supervision of counseling skills is an area of on-going exploration within the field of counselor education (Matarazzo & Patterson, 1986). Counselor education has traditionally combined didactic lectures, seminars, and readings with the opportunity to observe and apply counseling skills in a supervised setting. The objective of the applied phase or practicum is the transfer of learning from the didactic setting to an actual counseling environment (Boyd, 1978). This transfer and integration of learning is in many ways the essential link in the process of effective counselor education. The means of accomplishing this integration and the teaching of the actual counseling process may be, however, the weakest aspect of current counselor education (Cohn, 1973; Weiner & Kaplan, 1980).

Learning has been defined as "a relatively permanent change in behavior potentiality which occurs as a result of reinforced practice" (Kimble, 1961, p. 6). Critical parameters of reinforcement include quantity, immediacy and the schedule upon which reinforcement occurs. In the supervision process, immediate post-session feedback from supervisors has been shown to be more effective than supervision that is delayed by several days (Doyle, Foreman & Wales, 1977). Haley (1977) also has suggested that the beginning therapist ideally learns to do therapy by actually doing it under the guidance of a supervisor (at the moment the therapy is happening). The literature in general is supportive of the hypothesis that optimal supervisory feedback is specific and immediate (Matarazzo & Patterson, 1986).

One device for providing specific and immediate feedback to counselors in training is the "Bug-in-the-Ear" (BIE) (Korner & Brown, 1952). In this communication system, the counselor trainee wears a small hearing aid-type receiver while in the counseling session and the supervisor, observing through a one-way mirror, provides feedback via a transmitter. Cohn (1973) indicated that immediate feedback and evaluation are the relevant dimensions in using the BIE for training. Cues can be given to the trainee and the effectiveness immediately assessed. Similarly, reinforcement and support can be provided immediately while the trainee is involved in an unfamiliar or uncomfortable intervention. Further, recommendations relating to an on-going counseling session are more likely to be used when given during the session.

Several studies have utilized the BIE in counselor education with important results. For example, Carlson (1974) demonstrated that BIE reinforcement and instruction resulted in a higher level of verbal empathic behavior in counselor trainees than did BIE reinforcement by itself. Reddy (1969) also found that immediate BIE feedback was significantly more effective than delayed or no feedback in increasing empathy levels among counselor trainees responding to simulated psychotherapy films. Finally, Golsan (1975) compared trainees who received BIE feedback with those not receiving BIE feedback and found a significant improvement in the BIE group in four areas (i.e., empathy, concreteness, confrontation and immediacy) assessed by the Carkhuff scales. While these are important findings in terms of the BIE's potential effectiveness in the area of counselor training, the areas assessed represent a rather limited scope of counselor skills.

Research in this area continues to be limited in that the form and content of the BIE message have not been explored. Additionally, no attempt has been made in previous studies to determine what, if any, client change might have occurred as a result of the use of the BIE. Finally, existing studies have failed to assess BIE effectiveness by using more than one process or outcome measure or by employing the perspectives of multiple raters. Several authors (Kazdin, 1986; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Stiles, Shapiro & Elliott, 1986) have noted the importance of including client outcome and therapy process measures in research evaluating therapy effectiveness, and have recommended obtaining measures from different rater viewpoints. More generally, multiple process and outcome measures have been recommended for use in evaluating counselor effectiveness and in assessing the effectiveness of a particular method of counselor education (Matarazzo & Patterson, 1986).

The present study was designed to expand on the available information regarding the use of the BIE in counselor education. Specifically, this study examined whether

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the form of the BIE message (verbal reinforcement, prompts/directions/observations, or a combination of both) had a differential impact on counselor trainee's counseling effectiveness as measured by client, counselor, and supervisor. Outcome measurements included pre-and post-counseling maladjustment ratings by clients and Counseling Evaluation Inventories (CEIs) completed by clients, counselors and supervisors at the end of the practicum. The null hypothesis tested was that there would not be a significant difference among feedback conditions on a linear composite of counselor skills (as measured separately by the client, counselor and supervisor) and client change, as measured by pre- to post-counseling change in maladjustment.

Method

Participants

Counselor Trainees. Thirty graduate students who were enrolled in a ten-week introductory counseling practicum at a large state university made up the counselor trainee sample. Twenty-four (80%) were in masters level programs (Agency Counseling, 13; School Counseling, 7; Rehabilitation, 4) and six (20%) were in doctoral level programs (School Psychology, 2; Rehabilitation 2; Counseling Psychology, 2). The students ranged in age from 20 to 55 years (M = 32 years) and 19 were female. They consented to be part of the study in conjunction with their counseling practicum training.

Supervisors. Supervisors consisted of thirteen advanced doctoral students enrolled in a supervision practicum. Each of these doctoral students had previously had at least two years of counseling experience, including prior practicum experience with the BIE.

Clients. Students who had volunteered in response to a university-wide offer for free counseling services were involved as clients in this study. Client concerns primarily involved interpersonal issues and desire for personal growth. From a larger pool, data from 30 who completed counseling and all three instruments were included in this study.

Instruments

Q-Sort Checklist. The Q-Sort Checklist (Prager & Garfield, 1972), a measure of client maladjustment, is composed of Dymond's (1954) 74 items given to clients as a paper-and-pencil inventory. Each item consists of a statement which is descriptive of how people view themselves or how they feel about themselves.

Instructions on the Q-Sort Checklist were to "check those items that describe you as you see yourself today." The 37 items judged in Dymond's study to be indicative of maladjustment were used in the analysis. Sample maladjustment items include: "I feel insecure within myself," "I am afraid of a full fledged disagreement with a person," "I try not to think about my problems," "I am shy," and "I usually feel driven." Fewer maladjustment items checked after counseling can be interpreted as improvement on the part of the client.

Dymond (1954) reported a test-retest reliability of .86 for the Q-Sort, based on the stability of control group scores over a period of 6-12 months. In comparing post-therapy client maladjustment ratings to ratings by counselors of client success, Dymond found a significant relationship.

Counseling Evaluation Inventory (CEI). The CEI (Linden, Stone & Shertzer, 1965) was completed by clients, counselor trainees, and supervisors to compare counselor effectiveness across feedback conditions. The 21-item measure has been shown to contain 3 factors, however, the total score was used in this study since only a global rating of counseling effectiveness was desired.

The CEI has been found to be useful as a criterion measure of client satisfaction with counselor effectiveness (Bishop, 1971; Brown & Cannady, 1969). Linden et al. (1965) reported a total score test-retest reliability coefficient of .83. These authors also found a significant relationship between CEI scores and counselor trainee practicum grades.

"Bug-in-the-Ear" Feedback System (BIE). The BIE system (Farrall, 1966) developed by Farrall Instruments, Inc. (model B-311 Simplex) was used in this study. This system consists of a microphone, a transmitter, an antenna, and a small behind-the-ear receiver which picks up and amplifies the signal at an appropriate level.

Treatments

Three feedback conditions using BIE reinforcement and/or prompts were compared.

Condition I: Reinforcement. A one, two or three word response from the supervisor, such as "good," "you're doing fine," or "excellent response," intended to reinforce the counselor trainee's immediately preceding behavior.

Condition II: Prompts (Directions or Observations). Directions, such as suggesting a particular technique appropriate to the situation or stating "ask more about that," "bring the focus back to the present," or "make more eye contact," prompting what the counselor trainee should do or say. Observations, such as "she/he seems pretty anxious" or "she/he's story telling again" which comment about the process or which provide interpretation.

Condition III: Reinforcement and Prompts. Reinforcement and prompts representative of both Conditions I and II were given in Condition III, for example, "very good, now you can set up a homework assignment."

Procedure

Counselor trainees were randomly assigned to one of the three experimental feedback conditions, resulting in 10 counselor trainees per condition. Clients were assigned to counselor trainees based on compatibility of schedules and prior to obtaining any additional information regarding the client or their presenting problem.

Clients were provided with a written explanation of the study, an informed consent form, and a Q-Sort Checklist. Each client was seen by their counselor trainee for ten one-hour sessions with the opportunity for continuation if needed following the completion of the study.

All supervisors were trained by the senior author in the use of the BIE and practiced giving feedback in their particular treatment condition. Five counselor education department faculty members directly supervised the advanced doctoral students throughout the study, but did not provide BIE feedback to counselor trainees. Each of the faculty members had at least five years experience in teaching graduate level counseling courses.

Supervisors provided feedback with the BIE during three of each counselor trainee's ten counseling sessions as follows: (a) BIE sessions were distributed throughout the practicum with the first within the first 3 sessions, the second in the 4th or 5th session, and the third in the 8th or 9th session (with at least one session intervening between BIE sessions), (b) during each BIE session a minimum of ten and a maximum of twenty reinforcements and/or prompts were given, and (c) a BIE record was kept by supervisors and monitored by the senior author for adherence to feedback condition guidelines.

At termination, clients completed a CEI and a second Q-Sort Checklist. At the end of the ten-week practicum counselor trainees completed a self-evaluation CEI over their entire practicum caseload, and supervisors completed CEIs on the overall practicum performance of each counselor trainee.

Data Analysis

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was accomplished in which the three feedback conditions were compared on the four outcome variables (change in client maladjustment, client CEI, counselor trainee CEI and supervisor CEI). MANOVA was selected in order to reduce the experiment-wise error rate and to control for the intercorrelation among outcome variables. A change score was used for the client maladjustment variable since the alternative (use of the pre-test as a covariate in MANCOVA) confounds the effect of the three CEI outcome variables.

Results

Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations of the four outcome variables in each of the three feedback conditions. The multivariate test for homogeneity of the dispersion matrices was not significant, indicating that this assumption was met. The Bartlett test of sphericity indicated that the correlations between outcome variables were the same across groups.

The omnibus MANOVA test results showed that the overall multivariate analysis failed to achieve statistical significance, using Pillai's trace. However, the multivariate measure of strength of association indicates that approximately 18% of the variance in the linear combination of outcome variables could be explained by the treatment conditions.

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations for Outcome Variables by Feedback Condition

	Feedback Condition[a]					
Outcome Variable	Reinforcement		Prompts		Both	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Q-Sort Checklist						
Pre-counseling	4.60	3.4	5.90	4.4	4.60	4.0
Post-counseling	3.00	3.3	4.50	4.7	4.10	4.6
Change[b]	1.60	1.2	1.40	5.3	0.50	3.8
CEI						
Client	4.50	0.2	4.74	0.2	4.34	0.4
Counselor	4.01	0.3	3.99	0.2	4.22	0.3
Supervisor	3.94	0.6	3.92	0.7	4.01	0.5

[a] n = 10 for each condition

[b] Q-Sort change was used in the MANOVA

Discussion

Strictly, the results of the MANOVA support a conclusion that there are no differences among feedback conditions. However, the small sample size probably did not provide adequate power to achieve statistical significance.

The failure to find a stronger omnibus effect of feedback conditions on outcome measures may be an indication that the four have divergent patterns of relationship with the feedback conditions. It may be that a particular feedback condition is more closely associated with greater client change, while others are facilitative of different perceptions of counseling effectiveness. Since there is no relevant literature with which to compare these assumptions, further research using larger sample sizes and a control group is warranted.

Although BIE instrumentation has reached a fairly acceptable level of usability, some issues remain regarding the ease with which it may be integrated into counselor supervision and training. Time must be allowed prior to a counseling session to set up and test the equipment and to insure that the counselor trainee can hear the BIE message at a level that is not audible to the client. Several practice sessions with the BIE prior to actual use in a counseling session can serve to increase counselor trainee receptiveness to the BIE. Post-session communication between trainee and supervisor regarding the BIE is helpful, as is an on-going vigilance by both parties to avoid dependence on the BIE or the tendency for supervisors to over-control the session.

In this study, BIE feedback was provided to counselor trainees during three sessions; however, outcome measures were gathered only after the last session. Future research might explore the critical periods during the counseling practicum when the BIE is particularly useful, as well as the type of feedback message that is most helpful during each of these critical periods. This could be accomplished by including more BIE sessions and more frequent impact measures. Repeated measures comparisons between the impact of BIE and non-BIE sessions could then be conducted.

Finally, the timing of bugging during counseling sessions was determined by the supervisors in the present research. A process worthy of further study would be to provide feedback upon request from the counselor trainee when needed.

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BOOK REVIEW

No Negatives: A Positive Guide to Successful Leadership for Young People

by J. Victor McGuire
published by Spice Press
reviewed by Judith Caligiuri

It has long been established that self esteem is related to successful learning. Anyone looking for ideas to teach positive leadership skills to students in middle through high school would find *No Negatives* a great addition to a personal library. It is written in an easy to read format, geared towards middle school reading level, but the activities are applicable to all age levels. The book is divided into four sections dealing with self esteem, motivation, communication and career development. Each section includes McGuire's personal anecdotes and observations and offers a series of activities. There are thought provoking quotes and testimonials by students who have used *No Negatives* effectively. McGuire's positive attitude is infectious and just reading the book makes one want to go out and DO it. This is not a theory oriented textbook to ponder over. This is a let's-get-going book to be used by guidance and career counselors, teachers or anyone working with youth who believe that when you feel good about yourself, success follows.

The activities can be done as independent assignments, but having students complete and discuss their findings with others is suggested. McGuire asks students to evaluate themselves, gives concrete processes to improve self-esteem, asks students to take risks and to focus on their identified strengths. He gives them permission to make mistakes. There's always a section that allows them to jot down "personal points to ponder"--which they can add to as they go through the program.

His section on motivation concentrates on goal setting, obstacles to reaching goals, visualization, mapping out goals and practicing affirmation. Again, students could complete this independently, but spending as little as ten minutes of class time discussing the steps they are taking to reach their goals can be a powerful way of reinforcing success. A former Spice of Life student writes: "The bottom line is that it doesn't matter in what place you finish, for motivation is not fueled by spectators, but only one's self."

The communication section focuses on listening skills, barriers to communication, and improving verbal and non-verbal communication skills. He gives students independent activities that involve some communication risks. Practicing first is suggested. Another former student states that learning communication skills "helped me to listen much more openly and confidently" and help a friend through some serious personal issues.

In the last section, career development, Rich Feller has contributed the "Job Search Pyramid" which asks the student to actively seek a job. The Pyramid begins with non-threatening activities that will prepare the student for a job interview. It's a sequential process that continually reinforces skills already learned, while taking students one step further in applying for a job they want. The Pyramid is an excellent guide, giving students a positive plan for searching for a job while taking incremental steps that build in encouragement and reinforcement.

In summary, *No Negatives* is jam-packed with ideas for anyone who wants to foster positive attitudes in young people. The ideas can be supplemented with already owned materials. Quotes can be placed around the classroom and used to open discussions. Facilitators can spend a few minutes a day or a whole semester on these topics. McGuire is certain that if we believe "in walking down life's beaten path, we would seldom make tracks of our own." The greatest result for me when I read this book is that it gave me a shot of enthusiasm to start on my own path NOW!

Articles are *accepted until February 1* and the *Journal* is published annually each Spring.

Judith Caligiuri is the Student Activities Advisor and Special Education Teacher at Battle Mountain High School in Vail, Colorado, completing her Ph.D. in Counseling and Career Development at Colorado State University in Fort Collins, Colorado.

BOOK REVIEW

MEGATRENDS 2000:
TEN NEW DIRECTIONS FOR THE 1990s

by John Naisbitt and Patricia Aburdene
published by William Morrow and Company, Inc.
reviewed by Frieda Dietrich

Celebrating a new millennium is a business opportunity that comes along only once every 1,000 years. And John Naisbett's social forecasting team is not passing up the chance to be part of the biggest TGIF party on Friday, December 31, 1999. While I and my fellow aging-Baby-Boomers will be partying in the Great Pyramids, Naisbett and his wife, Patricia Aburdene, will probably be using nanotechnology to create their Gary Larsonesque new book called Megatrends Revisited.

Meanwhile, readers of Megatrends 2000 are invited to celebrate the creativity-based idea that "every stick has two ends." At the same time that others are predicting a doomsday scenario, the authors are suggesting that if only one would pay attention to our environment, namely read The Wall Street Journal, then we'd have the seeds for "engaging with the forces of the future."

The future includes these major trends:
Emergence of free market Socialism
Booming global economy
Renaissance in the Arts
Global lifestyles and cultural nationalism
Privatization of the welfare state
Rise of the Pacific Rim
Decade of women in leadership
Age of Biology
Religious renewal
Triumph of the individual

Naisbett has used what the Greeks call "eudoxia"--his reputation-- to become the stimulus to make others aware of the possibilities. There is even a principle which suggests that the mere act of observing something changes the nature of the thing observed. So, does that mean that Naisbett's trends are not really trends, but just self-fulfilling prophecies? If readers have faithfully been reading current news sources, they will need only a nanosecond to complete the book since the authors make adept use of boldface to synthesize key ideas in every chapter.

For those who would like to decide for themselves the value of these ideas, a thumbnail sketch of his major points should include a look at:

••• the booming global economy. Naisbett makes a strong case for economic performance rather than military power as the index of national power. Not only will we have more legal immigrants, we will also have "electronic" immigrants. In this "single market world," the necessities of our lives are becoming more expensive as the luxuries are becoming dirt cheap. For example, a cup of coffee at McDonald's in Stockholm costs $1.25 while at the same time, I can use an Airfone from 37,000 feet above Denver to make a one minute phone call for $2.00 on weekends.

••• global lifestyles. Levis is opening a factory in Hungary. CNN and MTV were highly influential in spreading the power of information into Budapest. EuroDisneyland is barely completed and there is talk of a themepark at Count Drac's castle in Romania. This cultural homogenization causes many veteran travelers to scream "travel now while it's still different!" Once these countries have new constitutions, can the Pursuit of the VCR be far behind? Naisbett thinks not.

••• rise of the Pacific Rim. The authors give us a good reminder that the Pacific Rim includes California, Washington, and Alaska. They provide an excellent overview of the current economies and social forces in China, Korea, and Japan. We are made aware of the fact that Australia is the largest foreign company owner in Colorado.

••• age of Biology. Darwin had "natural selection"; with the emerging technologies, Naisbett tells us that we are now able to have "unnatural selection." As much cognitive dissonance as the statement might cause us, this science based superculture will definitely be a critical player in humankind's expanding concept of what it means to be "human."

If we accept the definition that every job is a problem to be solved, Naisbett's trends support such growth occupations as industrial psychologists, special events marketers, ministers, international accountants, art advisers, special librarians, mediators, and New Age attorneys to help us out when we declare spiritual bankruptcy.

For those fighting the Time Wars of busy schedules, Megatrends 2000 serves as an effective life preserver in efforts not to drown in the sea of information during the 1990s.

Frieda Dietrich is a staff developer in Fremont, Nebraska, completing her Ph.D. in Counseling and Career Development at Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado.

BOOK REVIEW

Do What You Love, The Money Will Follow: Discovering Your Right Livelihood

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by Marsha Sinetar
published by Dell Publishing
reviewed by Debra L. Rhine

This is a review of Marsha Sinetar's book *Do What You Love, The Money Will Follow*, subtitled *Discovering Your Right Livelihood*. This book centers around the idea that following what one loves most will ultimately bring success. This review will assess:

1. The usefulness of the guidance presented.
2. The audience to which the book's information is applicable. While the book may be valuable to some, it may be less helpful to others.

The first two-thirds of the book deal with some very sensitive issues such as self-esteem and our parental upbringing. Sinetar (1987) refers to self-esteem as being "a total belief system that predictably sets up choices and experiences for us and thus continually reinforces itself through our habitual ways of acting. It is our total way of experiencing life, the context or filter through which perceptions are screened. In other words, it is a major belief system that helps shape our reality" (p. 23). She explains that self-esteem is our earliest verdict of who we are and how we find acceptance. As infants we receive various messages about love, rejection, praise, etc. and continue throughout our lifetime filtering the world through our image of ourselves. We accept messages that agree with our image and refuse messages that contradict our image. The elements of our self-image, both good and bad, are shaped largely by significant adults at an early age. Sinetar suggests breaking this mold through learning to accept who we are as individuals.

She states that "Truly we are three people in this process: our own Prodigal Son, who has misbehaved, especially when he chooses wrongly, yet who wishes to return to the love, safety and comfort of his home; the father who accepts him back without questioning, with a generous loving spirit; and the second son who questions, judges and opposes this loving welcome" (Sinetar, 1987, p. 34). Simply, Sinetar believes that until we accept ourselves, our vocational purpose will be unactualized.

This guidance is well taken; however, the process of dealing with our true self, is difficult. It may be simple, but it is not easy. Obtaining high self esteem by merely following the advice given in this book seems a feudal prospect at best. This critic suggests that if the reader is serious about improving self-esteem, they should consider avenues such as finding a psychologist or going through family reconstruction, in addition to reading this book.

Sinetar has written an excellent book for the right-brain thinker and those individuals who are already on a path of self-understanding. For those who are dealing with more fundamental needs, *Do What You Love, The Money Will Follow* will not offer readily useful guidance. Specifically, consider Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs model (Zunker, 1990). The model is illustrated as a pyramid with the base being psychological needs, moving upward to safety needs, social needs, ego needs, and peaking with self-actualization. This book applies to those who are searching ego issues in an attempt to become self-actualized. For a person who is concerned with earning enough money to buy food and shelter for their children, more fundamental guidance is necessary. Sinetar's tone occasionally indicates a lack of attention to this segment of society. "My sense is that many who are not earning a decent livelihood are hoping to get something for nothing" (Sinetar, 1987, p. 135). In this critic's opinion, desire or effort may well affect the ability to earn a decent livelihood for some; however, circumstance can also influence one's situation.

Sinetar frequently emphasizes that we must evaluate what is truly important to ourselves and not allow societal norms to affect our choices. While most people tend to regress to a state of feeling inadequate when they get anxious and scared, the truly resourceful person uses this as yet another opportunity to take charge of circumstances or events. By conquering our fears one by one and by learning to stand up for ourselves and make decisions, we learn that we can count on ourselves. We learn that what we possess within ourselves provides us with what it takes to be truly secure in a long term, substantive sense. We learn that this sort of security has little to do with money. This goes back to an issue discussed in the early chapters; we must believe in ourselves, knowing that we have all the skill, intelligence and wit to meet our every need (Sinetar, 1987, pp 154-155).

While Sinetar's views are valid, it will take more than reading this book to reach this stage of growth.

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GUIDELINES FOR AUTHORS

The Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development welcomes original manuscripts on topics or issues related to all divisions of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development. If you are interested in a particular issue, working in a model program, dealing with a special clientele, working in an unusual setting or with motivative materials, the *Journal* welcomes your ideas. All material should communicate ideas clearly to a readership composed primarily of practitioners.

Manuscripts are acknowledged upon receipt and sent to appropriate experts for blind review. Authors will be notified within a few weeks as to the disposition of a submission. Upon publication, the author receives three copies of the *Journal*.

Following are guidelines for submitting a manuscript:

1. Submit the original and two clear copies. Original should be typed on 8-1/2" x 11" white bond. Word processor-generated copy of the original is acceptable.
2. Double space material, including references, quotations, tables and figures.
3. Avoid footnotes.
4. Use tables sparingly and type them on separate pages. Please supply graphs, illustrations and drawings as camera-ready art wherever possible. We will set figure captions in appropriate type. Authors bear responsibility for accuracy of references, quotations, tables and figures.
5. On a separate page, include your name, position, title, place of employment, mailing address, two phone numbers, and indicate how you would prefer to be cited in the *Journal*.
6. Arrangement and form of references and subheads should follow the American Psychological Association bibliographical format. (For books: Author, year, book, city of publication, publisher, page numbers. For articles: Author, year, article, publication, volume, number, pages.)
7. Avoid the use of the generic masculine pronoun and sexist terminology. Aim for a readable, approachable, immediate style.
8. Do not submit material that is under consideration by another periodical. If you have published an article in another publication that you believe is of merit, you may wish to submit it to the *Colorado Association for Counseling and Development Newsletter* for consideration as a summary or abstract.
9. Manuscripts usually should not exceed 3,000 words. A typical article would run from 8-12 pages of double-spaced, typewritten copy. Please do not let length considerations inhibit expressing of ideas.
10. The Journal reserves the right to edit all submissions for style and clarity of presentation. The editor will communicate with authors directly to clarify any confusion as to the content of your submission.
11. Manuscripts are accepted throughout the year with a February 1, 1991 deadline for the next issue.
12. Submit manuscripts to: **Rich Feller, Editor, Journal of the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development, School of Occupational and Educational Studies, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado 80523.** Contact the editor at **303/491-6879** with questions or ideas concerning your entry or an idea for a manuscript.

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VOLUME 19 SPRING 1991

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FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

Editorial boards work in mysterious ways, or that's how it may seem to those of us who have tasted the letter of rejection. It's been my experience that publishing is often a competitive and negative experience coupled with a sense of secrecy.

We hope that's not the case here. Each manuscript is sent without the author's name attached to three blind reviewers (editorial board members with interests related to the content) for feedback. Authors receive a letter acknowledging receipt of the manuscript. Reviewer's offer editorial comment, reaction and evaluation in terms of high, average, low priority. Authors receive a summative feedback letter with "next step" directions along with the edited manuscripts. Authors are encouraged to make adjustments and are provided with deadlines and feedback regarding the manuscript's probability of appearing in the next issue.

In a majority of cases, the encouragement and editing offered by reviewers provides the guidance needed to enhance the manuscript. On occasion, authors are encouraged to make changes requiring timelines related to re-submission to the next issue.

The board exists to serve the membership and is pleased to present a wide range of topics and styles demonstrating the considerable effort of sixteen authors contributing to this issue.

The editorial board is also extremely pleased to welcome Juan/John Ramirez to the list of CACD members committed to providing encouragement to the authors among our counseling and development colleagues. Juan, Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Northern Colorado, has been a frequent contributor to the Journal and offers experiences from publishing numerous research and conceptual articles in various journals. Additionally, John's students and those privileged to work by his side know he brings the gift of compassion and encouragement to any task.

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CORRELATIVE ASPECTS OF ADOLESCENT SUBSTANCE ABUSE AND SELF-ESTEEM

by Lynn Miller Feltis

Abstract

Current literature that specifically addresses the relationship between adolescent substance abuse and measures of self-esteem is scant. This article is based on the premise that the two variables are highly negatively correlated. A research of literature provides an inferential conclusion that a young child whose self-esteem is not sufficiently nourished will grow into an adolescent who has a greater propensity to abuse substances. The construct of self-esteem itself is discussed, and what factors appear to contribute to its development.

The American public has shown increasing awareness and concern during the last two decades over the use and experimentation with alcohol and other drugs by its youth. The alarming statistics and the high profile the media accords this subject have contributed to this awareness. In the late 1970s, many states responded to this increased interest by mandating drug and alcohol information in curriculum (Pipher & Rivers, 1982).

Lacking clearly defined goals other than to comply with the mandate, schools bought packaged programs or hastily put together their own health education and drug information courses. This approach, assuming the student used drugs and alcohol because of a lack of information regarding negative health consequences, did not work (Pickens, 1985; Bell & Battjes, 1986; Ketchel & Bieger, 1989; Finn, 1979). Indeed, the trends in drug use grew to a frightening level. In Johnston's 1986 study, nine out of every ten high school seniors had used alcohol within the previous thirty days, fifty percent had smoked marijuana, one in six had used cocaine, and one in eight had used hallucinogens. One in five seniors are daily smokers and more than 37% of the respondents reported at least one occasion of heavy drinking (five or more drinks in a row) in the two weeks prior to the survey (Onestak, 1989). Recent figures place the average beginning age for an American youth drinking alcohol at 12.5 years (McCurdy, 1986).

Drug education program designers, after seeing the failure of purely informational programming, theorized that students with a higher level of self-esteem might exhibit lower levels of drug and alcohol use (Swisher, 1989). Programs took on an affective approach. Encouragingly enough, the latest research by the National Institute on Drug Abuse indicates in 1985 that adolescent drug uses in the 1980s decreased (Ketchel & Bieger, 1989). However, the intensity of the drugs themselves and frequency of use may be going up (McCurdy, 1986).

A logical conclusion, in light of these findings might be that substance abuse among adolescents negatively correlates with levels of self-esteem. A central purpose of this study is to determine to what extent self-esteem health predisposes a teenager to channel "normal" adolescent rebellion either towards acceptable behaviors or towards deviance. While current literature which explicitly correlates measures of self-esteem and substance abuse is sparse, research suggests that teens who believe themselves unable to live up to societal (familial and peer) pressures to succeed will compensate by acting out in negative ways, specifically by abusing substances.

What distinguishes between the occasional user and the teen who becomes addicted? The focus of this article is to show, through current literature, that the child whose self-esteem is not sufficiently nourished may grow into an adolescent who rejects conventional norms and engages in substance abuse as a means of elevating or restoring their derogated self-image. This is an imperative area of study, especially since popular theory for combating drug use is to "just say no." This is not a strong enough defense; the program is infinitely more complex and requires a more comprehensive approach.

Much controversy exists over the definition of self-esteem. It is a difficult construct to establish because of numerous factors. Juhasz (1985) claims that evaluations of self often include aspects of self on which esteem does not rest. Measurement instruments, especially when used with an adolescent population, may include values and traits that reflect adult assumptions. The present questions may omit salient factors or may include things that are not relative or important for the person. Additionally, different factors may carry more weight with a person and may compensate for other areas that register as low on testing instruments.

A related problem is that of selectivity. All people can have higher self-esteem by concentrating on areas in which they excel (Rosenberg, 1979). The things that people cannot change generally assume less importance. Sometimes, however, some of these biological, familial, societal or individual aspects of one's social identity may garner more attention and contribute to negative self-esteem. The person then will either ignore, accept or try to change these particular traits.

An adolescent may not have the verbal maturity to express a complex and difficult concept such as self-worth. Self-esteem and feelings of self-worth are different from

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self-concept. A degree of valuation is associated with esteem. Self-concept more often asks for self descriptors while self-esteem implies a value judgment of those descriptors. This evaluative component exacerbates the problem of measurement. The adolescent may have trouble not only identifying but also valuing self-esteem type qualities. Furthermore, esteem may be fragmented into physical, mental, relationship, school and family concerns.

While a definitive concept of self-esteem and its measurement is lacking, there are general inferences to its meaning (Bell & Battjes, 1986).

What, then influences or shapes this construct? Obviously family relationships play a crucial role. Amato (1986) found no difference in self-esteem of children in cohesive one-parent families and cohesive two-parent families. However, parent-parent conflict and parent-child conflict is associated with low self-esteem.

Differences in parenting may lead to varying degrees of self-esteem. Aristotle first defined effective parenting, emphasizing that children must be "habituated to desirable behavior - attending to tasks, sharing, honesty - before they can understand theoretically the benefit of doing so" (Hawley, 1987, p. 25). Rewards would naturally follow and reinforce the desired behavior. Without this structure, the child does not receive approval for his behavior from his parent which in turn reinforces a negative sense of self.

Cohen (1987) correlated a positive relationship between adolescent depression and low self-esteem. He also found that this correlation becomes a positive predictor of subsequent controllable negative events (i.e., school suspension, running away). He also found excessive use of alcohol to be related to belligerence, accident proneness, impaired school performance and problems involving the law.

Family cohesiveness and communication patterns have been studied in families with adolescent substance abuse (Barnes, 1984; Jurich, Polson, Jurich, & Bates, 1985). "Drug abusing adolescents report having little impact on family processes and feeling little closeness with their parents. These families are characterized by a lack of love and minimal support for their members, and as a result, the drug user's needs for recognition, love, and trust go chronically unfulfilled" (Onestak, 1989, p. 3). This family interaction is bound to affect one's self-esteem. If a child is not well attended on a consistent basis, this shapes the child's appraisal of self-worth. The discounting by one's own family is a forceful blow.

R. H. Blum makes a case for the development of high self-esteem and healthy home life. He places drug users on a continuum, from non-users on one end to the opposite extreme of abusers. He characterizes the non-users as "satisfied, close-to-family, moderate, religiously active, ideologically stable, and technologically oriented (Blum, 1969, p. 129). On the other hand, characteristics of the opposite extreme are "more often found to be deviant, very dissatisfied, in opposition to their parents, and politically very active and left wing; often they take incompletes, have a lot of drop-out experience, have considerable faith in drugs as tools to achieve a variety of personal and interpersonal purposes, are irreligious, pessimistic, and the like . . ." (Blum, 1969, p. 129).

Blum also inquired into the medicating habits of parents with their young children. He believes the most important finding for users of all classes of drugs is the consistent recollection that there were advantages of being sick as a child, or that the parents showed no concern over their childhood health. Several conclusions may be drawn from this finding. One could be that the parents did not care - either for the child's physical well-being, or that the medicating was a lazy remedy for busy, preoccupied parents to deal with the additional needs of their children. Sickness and the resultant attention is somewhat self-indulgent. There is also the possibility that the child enjoyed the drugged state induced by the medication. The appeal of extra attention during sickness from busy parents is obvious. This points to a fairly desperate child seeking parental attention or approval at any cost.

However, parent-parent conflict and parent-child conflict is associated with low self-esteem.

Adolescence is a particularly crucial stage in human growth and development for maintaining elevated levels of self-esteem. People at this stage of development, by virtue of attending school, have a higher and more active level of interaction with others and the environment. Peer acceptance is imperative. An event that may seem trivial from an adult perspective can impair an adolescent's basic sense of well-being. Teens have not developed a complex understanding of time like an adult's. Experiencing a first love, a first intimacy, finding oneself adequate -all these can be confusing for anyone regardless of age; these questions are made more confounding for the teen due to the lack of social experience. Erickson's fifth stage (identity achievement vs role confusion) in his pschyosocial model of developmental tasks provides support for this process. One adapts and learns management of these crises through the maturation process. As Hawley (1987) perceptively writes, "the only way out of adolescence is through it." When a teen uses substances to dull the pain of his problems or situation, he feels more able to cope with tension and anxiety (Ketchel & Bieger, 1989).

How are levels of self-esteem related to frequency of substance abuse? If the premise is correct, as self-esteem drops, frequency of substance abuse should increase. Conversely, individuals with high levels of self-esteem would be less likely to become substance abusers. A corollary also is that substance abuse is blind to socioeconomic status; a better predictor in all social classes of drug dependency should be strength of self-worth. Lowell Horton (1988) concurs, adding that fewer than 3 percent of adult alcoholics are jobless, homeless, and without families.

A person with impaired self-esteem feels inadequate to cope with the environment (Kandel, 1978). He perceives

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ON COUNSELING MEN

by Don T. Basse
and Kristin L. Greenstreet

Abstract

This article is based on the premise that males are somewhat inexpressive with their feelings. Both genders are ruled by socialization and biology and, while sharing the same psychological needs, find different avenues for expression. Male avenues of expressiveness are different from those employed by females and perhaps different from the expectations of therapists. Therapeutic interventions for males will be enhanced by the exploration of counseling paradigms which compliment these different expressive modes of the genders.

There seems to be a revolution of male awareness issues currently taking place. The recent proliferation of self-help literature and articles in professional journals points toward embracing the male experience as a "90's" sort of topic.

A recurring theme in the literature, especially the popular literature, suggests that there is something wrong with men. And it is this premise that, while popular, could be leading males into an unhealthy psychological abyss. It appears that the same measures are being used to judge psychological adjustment for males as are used to assess psychological adjustment for females. Thus, the same "cures" are proposed, the drive being to help males "get in touch with their feelings."

Recent research has drawn attention to gender differences in psychological help-seeking (Cook, 1990; Good, Dell, & Mintz, 1989; Ipsaro, 1985; Mintz & O'Neil, 1990; Scher & Good, 1990). Men do not seek psychotherapeutic assistance as readily as women. Collier (1982) reports that of all clients seeking counseling, two-thirds are female. One in seven men, versus one in three women, seek mental health services in their lifetime. The fact that men don't readily seek counseling has led some authors (David & Brannon, 1976; Ipsaro, 1986; Komarovsky, 1976; Levinson, 1978; Lewis, 1978; Morin & Garfinkle, 1978; O'Neil, 1981; Pleck, 1979) to speculate the reasons, ranging from biological determinants to socialization. The end result is that men find themselves in a paradox when it comes to seeking psychotherapeutic services.

This paradox for men develops from certain conditions in the males' development. The first condition is the preponderance of evidence suggesting that males are recipients of negative sanctions for expressing feelings, weaknesses and/or defeat (Hammen & Peters, 1977; Moore & Nuttall, 1981; Warren, 1983). The second condition addresses the role of nature in the biological make-up of the male (Barash, 1982; Chance, 1988).

Raphael (1988) suggests that there are strong biological factors contributing to the character of men and distinguishing them from traditional gender roles associated with women. Furthermore, Barash (1982) explains that social behavior is motivated by basic biological needs. Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) suggest that boys must contend with more aggressive drives. Libby and Aries (1989) report that 3-5 year-old boys used significantly more aggressive and non-nurturing characters in providing fantasy solutions to incomplete stories.

If maleness is determined largely by biological determinants, then these are not to be easily overcome by socialization factors. In fact, socialization has probably reinforced these biological determinants. Deciding to what extent biology and socialization each affect male development of expressiveness becomes an important task, so that both factors may be embraced in understanding how males develop psychologically.

Becoming Male

Tiger (1970) suggests that male bonding (bonding being a process of acceptance) is biologically transmitted. He states that it is a "socially learned component of the male life cycle." Jeff Wagenheim (1990), in an interview with Robert Bly, further suggests that males have lost the availability to be aware of their maleness. Thus, the male is unsure of when, or even if, he is ever a man. Bly attributes this to the loss of time spent with the best role model, the father.

Additionally, he concludes that because boys don't spend significant time with their fathers (who are working and often not home much), boys don't learn the nuances (social and interactional skills) of becoming male. These nuances vary from culture to culture and still exist in some areas. Twentieth-century American males have lost these nuances as the society moved from agrarian to urban and the father had less contact with the male child. This makes the transition of passing from boyhood to manhood an unsure process.

Raphael (1988) concurs that "without a formalized rite of passage, it is harder for a youth to be sure he has actually changed into manhood." An irresolute status in life, boy or man, places further stress on the need to interpret, with a certain amount of rigidness, the traditional roles and behaviors of being male. Women seem to have maintained some of these passages that males have lost. In our society, it is

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uncommon for an adult woman to question or be questioned about her "womanhood," whereas males seem to be subject to questioning of their "manhood" throughout their lives.

Boys engage in play and socialization differently than girls. Boys are more assertive than girls (Fagot, Hagan, Leinbach & Kronsberg, 1985; Lloyd & Smith, 1986). Boys emphasize more physical interaction than girls (DiPietro, 1981; Smith & Connolly, 1972). David & Brannon (1976) suggest that, of the characteristics making up the male role, the avoidance of "sissy stuff" was the most salient. For males to not always act "manly" seems to carry more negative sanctions. For a girl to be called a "tom-boy" seems to be more easily dismissed as a "stage" they are going through. However, for a boy to be called a "sissy" seems to carry a more negative impact; it is also not as readily dismissed by society.

Certainly the literature demonstrates that males and females are different in their behaviors concerning aggressiveness and nurturance. However, these explicit differences do not mean that one set of behaviors is necessarily more productive than the other. Harrison (1979) suggests that males' psychological needs are essentially the same as womens'. The aforementioned paradox arises in how psychotherapeutic services are afforded males. Should males violate their socialization, and perhaps their biological directive, to take advantage of present counseling services?

While certainly males and females share the same needs, desires, feelings, etc., the assumption that they express, or even should express these similarly, may not be the case.

The expressiveness or non-expressiveness of males seems dependent upon criteria used to make this distinction. The stereotyped "macho" male most certainly appears to be lacking in positive emotional expressiveness. However, the casual observation of these stereotyped males may reveal that under conditions in which the male is secure and/or familiar (sports, hunting, etc.), males are both physically and emotionally expressive.

Male Expressiveness/Non-Expressiveness

There is considerable literature suggesting that males exhibit low expressiveness (David & Brannon, 1976; Fisher & Turner, 1970; Margolis, 1982; O'Neil, 1986; Voit, 1982). However, the criteria which literature uses to measure male expressiveness may be based upon an androgynous bias. While certainly males and females share the same needs, desires, feelings, etc., the assumption that they express, or even should express these similarly, may not be the case. In fact, a casual glance at not only our current culture, but our history, would suggest that this is not correct. Males and females have a long history of expressing themselves differently.

Emotional inexpressiveness is a vital part of being male (Goldfried & Friedman, 1982; O'Neil, 1981; Pleck, 1976; Pleck, 1981). The psychotherapeutic system, as established, offers little comfort to the inexpressive male. Males tend to feel shame in expressing their feelings, if those feelings have a perceived negative connotation or imply they have failed in handling some issue. In times of high positive perception, men are often very expressive (i.e., winning the ballgame, closing the big deal, etc.). It is in the time of duress that the male exhibits low expressiveness. The male resists efforts to increase expressiveness through therapeutic approaches that encourage the male to violate their taboo of expressiveness. The encouragement of expressiveness under these conditions place men in the aforementioned paradox.

Traditional socialization of the male role encourages power, control, autonomy, and self-reliance. These socialized roles may be directly incongruent with help-seeking. Men may look at seeking psychological assistance as a sign of failure, weakness, and defeat (sissy stuff). Men should be active and achievement-oriented, dominant in their interpersonal relationships, and level-headed and self-contained (Thompson, Jr., & Pleck, 1986). Feeling sad or depressed is often viewed as unmanly (Warren, 1983). Men have been encouraged to be competitive, aggressive and secretive and discouraged from being intimate and sharing (Farrell, 1974). The socially acceptable avenues of restricted emotional expression may support the reluctance of men to seek help even if they admit to its need.

Bias Of Counselor Training

Borders and Fong (1984) suggest that the traditional client may be oriented into perceiving experiences in a masculinity/femininity paradigm. A gender-stereotyped counselor may have a tendency to overemphasize the clients' paradigm. This therapeutic interaction may only reinforce gender-stereotyped perceptions that are not healthy and/or not facilitative for the client's personal change and growth. They further suggest that a more androgynous approach in counselor training would better prepare the counselor. The authors found that clients of androgynous counselors reported more satisfaction in the therapeutic relationship than with nonandrogynous counselors.

However, Fong and associates (1986) reported opposite results in finding that androgynous trainees were less effective than undifferentiated counselor trainees (having low gender-stereotyping). Masculine trainees (having a high masculine-stereotyping) were the least effective group. Good, Gilbert and Scher (1990) suggest that there is no conclusive evidence that androgynous counselors have better counseling results.

Men need a therapeutic model which will embrace their restrictive emotional expression. Any attempt to "force" the inexpressive male to participate in a therapeutic model which may be contrary to their method of emotional expressiveness would be nonproductive. It appears that biology and socialization have teamed up somewhat against males in that traditional therapy (the process of encouraging the client to express their feelings) and could place a burden on males to violate their inexpressive selves. Thus, the need for a model that would allow males more flexibility to participate in expressiveness without violating the inexpressive part of themselves.

Discussion

The literature suggests that males are inexpressive and that this indicates difficulties with their functioning. The literature further suggests that this problem of male inexpressiveness needs further therapeutic development. The male inexpressiveness problem is currently being addressed by instituting male growth groups, attracting males into counseling, and a proliferation of self-help literature designed to help males gain more awareness of themselves.

These efforts to raise emotional awareness of males appear to parallel the process of the "women's movement," which gained momentum in the 1970's. While these therapeutic vehicles have been embraced by females as ways to raise emotional awareness, it is not clear that the same methods will prove successful for males. The biological and social sanctions on male expressiveness may not attract men into the current process of emotional expressiveness, even if this is deemed desirable.

Further research must be directed at eliminating the damaging aspects of gender-typed stereotypes that are harmful to both genders.

In our society, historically, there has been a great emphasis for men to focus on individualism and for women to focus on relatedness (Auer, 1990). In our culture, mastery and nurturance have been defined in opposition (Pearson, 1989). A paradigm shift is needed regarding gender expressiveness in the therapeutic setting; however, the true challenge of therapy should not be the focus of gender-role change or reversal. Rather, the emphasis of therapy may encourage an individual's (male or female) understanding of balance between courage and fear, celebration and pain, expansiveness and limitation, separateness and togetherness, dependence and independence: the ability to grasp more than one side of any polarity at a time (Welwood, 1991).

Welwood (1991) refers to the "growing edge" as the "place where old familiar ways of being leave off and new possibilities keep opening up before us." An awareness that personal growth does not take place in isolation can lead us to seek relationships in which neither party silences, sacrifices, or betrays the self, and each party expresses strength, vulnerability, weakness, and competence in a balanced way. Only through working on the self can we begin to enhance our connectedness to others (Lerner, 1989).

The review of literature leads us through an examination of male expressiveness/non-expressiveness discussion of gender-typed stereotyping. There appears to be no conclusive evidence which is dominant; biology or socialization. Even the effects these components have on each other are unclear. The literature seems to suggest that an androgynous approach would take care of this biology/socialization problem, largely by placing males and females in a common paradigm. However, this would not explain the interrelatedness of biological needs and socialization. This would be a loss for both males and females.

Rather than force the genders to be more alike, the therapeutic goal should be to discover and enhance the differences as appropriate and work toward change of the disruptive differences. Males will be moved slowly to change their inexpressiveness, if they feel their behavior is perceived as "wrong," yet they experience the behavior as being biologically motivated. Finding an approach which will allow and encourage male expressiveness is the task.

Recommendations

The unprecedented change the women's movement has brought the last two decades has been remarkable, not only for the changes brought to women, but also men. Scher and Good (1990) report that the oppressive qualities of gender roles are being tested and overcome.

These changes need to help us focus on an evaluation of current psychotherapeutic treatment strategies. Despite the changes that have occurred in gender roles for both men and women, there still seems to be significant evidence that many differences persist. As noted earlier, some of the evidence suggests that the differences may be biological in nature.

There needs to be a reexamination of our quest for androgyny. If the differences that exist are biological and not socially mandated, then the quest for an androgynous society is substantially hampered.

Current counseling models exist which allow for the expression of experiences without imposing affective verbiage upon the client. Neuro Linguistic Programming is one such model. In an example, Bandler & Grinder (1979) report that a client can express themselves in language such as "see" and "hear," rather than the traditional counselor paradigm of "feel." The male client may well respond more positively to such language, rather than the restrictive model of "feel."

Further research must be directed at eliminating the damaging aspects of gender-typed stereotypes that are harmful to both genders. However, efforts must also be made to pursue clarification of these differences, ensuring that both genders embrace awareness of themselves, rather than changing for the other gender. Such changes most surely will be unsatisfactory for both genders. Anthony Ipsaro, in his workshops, uses the phrase of "celebrating the differences." A focus needs to be placed on counselor training programs to increase gender-typed awareness—perhaps a disbanding of seeking androgynous-minded counselors, which may attempt to force change and not allow the celebrating of differences to occur.

Ultimately, the focus of change needs to be placed upon the individual. Bradshaw (1988) says that healthy relationships with the best chances of surviving are the ones in which the two people are each whole without the other. They don't "need" in order to be whole. If, in counseling men, the focus could be on helping the male become whole, without new paradigms being forced upon him, the male may discover new paradigms of perception of self and expression of their affect.

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BASIC STRESS REDUCTION TOOLS FOR SCHOOL COUNSELORS

by Linda L. Tudor

Abstract

This paper focuses on the internal source of stress. Three basic stress reduction techniques are presented which school counselors can easily implement. An overview is given of two stress management programs, one for elementary levels and one for secondary levels.

Effects of stress are visible in school children of all ages, regardless of sex, race, socioeconomic status, or environment (Kaplan, 1989). The professional counseling literature abounds with examples of stress created by the convergence of social forces during the last two decades, in particular (Blom, Cheney, & Snoddy, 1986; Carnegie Report, 1989; Elkind, 1988; Humphrey, 1988; Omizo, Omizo, and Suzuki, 1988). This paper offers basic tools for school counselors who wish to address this serious problem.

The Major Source of Stress

While environmental stressors identified by researchers are important (Blom et al., 1986; Coddington, 1984; Humphrey, 1984; Omizo et al., 1988; Rutter, 1983), the major source of stress is not the external environment (Nuernberger, 1985). As defined by Nuernberger, stress is a state of mind and "...In looking for the causes externally, we have not paid attention to the source of stress-the way we as individuals think, feel and act" (Nuernberger, 1985, p. 5). In describing the "anatomy of stress" (1985, p. 35), Nuernberger explains that stress is a recurring imbalance of the autonomic nervous system. He says this imbalance results from the mind and body function and interaction which we unconsciously create. It is a physiological response to mental activity which has stimulated excessive sympathetic (arousal, "fight-or-flight response") or parasympathetic (inhibition, "possum response") activity. In a healthy, non-stress state of balance the sympathetic and parasympathetic functions of the autonomic nervous system cooperate closely to maintain equilibrium. Nuernberger (1985) states:

> *Autonomic functioning is controlled mainly by the events that occur in the cerebral cortex, the part of the brain which organizes perceptual data and provides the context by which we interpret our world. Thus, the primary source of stress...is the emotional and perceptual factors which form our basic personality. The greatest source of hypothalamic arousal comes from our own cerebral cortex in response to repetitive thought patterns, constant worries and apprehensions about unresolved past, present or future events which are associated with potentially painful or negative consequences in our lives (p. 81).*

Stress Reduction

Stress reduction strategies for school children can target both the external and the internal aspects of the problem. To identify and reduce environmental stressors, counselors can collaborate with students and parents, teachers and administrators. Group training sessions can provide parents and teachers tools for handling their own stress, as well as for understanding the problem in children. Pelsma (1988) outlines a parents' workshop which is clear and succinct.

Because external events ultimately are mere potential stimuli for stressful reactions, this paper focuses on strategies which address students' inner reactionary patterns. The key to mastering stress lies in our ability to control our internal states (Nuernberger, 1985). We can turn unconscious habits into conscious choices.

Basic Tools

The following three techniques discussed by Nuernberger (1985) are basic tools that children (and adults) of all ages can easily learn:

1. Diaphragmatic Breathing

Goal: To train the body to maintain a relaxed, non-stress, state (counteracting the common "habitual" (p. 174) thoracic breathing pattern which activates the sympathetic arousal mechanism, creating a constant level of stress), and to develop a habit of healthy and more efficient "cardiorespiratory functioning" (p. 173).

Method: Sit or lie down comfortably with one hand on your upper abdomen and one hand on your chest. As you breath, concentrate on the air moving down into the upper abdomen and lifting the hand resting there. The hand on your chest remains still. The motion of the breath is gentle and effortless. Nuernberger (1985) says, "Notice how easy it is to breathe deeply and easily, without any effort" (p. 193). Time: 5 minutes

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2. Even Breathing

Goal: To restore balance in the autonomic nervous system, via the relationship of inhalation to sympathetic activity and exhalation to parasympathetic activity (p. 180).

Method: Nuernberger (1985) says, "Imagine that the breath is like a large wheel moving through the body without any pauses or stops" (p. 193). While practicing diaphragmatic breathing, concentrate on making the breath flow smoothly and evenly. The inhalation and exhalation are the same length (count slowly) and the pressure of the flow is constant. There is no pause between inhaling and exhaling. Time: 5 minutes

3. Breath Awareness

Goal: To train the mind to be conscious of inner patterns and to develop inner concentration, which "leads to balance in the autonomic nervous system" (Nuernberger 1985, p. 211).

Method: Concentrate on the feeling of the breath flowing in and out of your nostrils (you may notice coolness as the breath comes in and warmth as the breath goes out). Simply feel the sensation of the breath (and notice that there is no room for chatter in your mind when you are focused). Time: 5-10 minutes at a time, gradually working up to 20 minutes.

An Elementary Level Program

The "Kiddie QR Program" is a well-formulated program for elementary school children. This program teaches awareness of physiological responses to stress and mind-body integration. Through descriptive and playful imagery, children are taught a self regulation technique called the "Quieting Reflex (QR)" (Stroebel & Stroebel, 1984; Ragan & Hiebert, 1987). This is a six second sequence of relaxation behaviors and mental suggestions. The QR is performed to interrupt physiological responses to a stressful stimulus. It helps children pause and choose to relax. The "Kiddie QR Program" outlines sixteen four-to-seven minute experiential exercises which can be easily integrated into classroom situations (Stroebel, Stroebel, & Holland, 1980).

A Secondary Level Program

A well-written text for adolescents that outlines a very accessible and comprehensive stress management program is Earl Hipp's *Fighting Invisible Tigers: A Student Guide to Life in "The Jungle."* Hipp defines stress in terms of common adolescent worries and physical or emotional experiences. He differentiates coping strategies (distraction, avoidance, and escape) from stress management skills. Hipp elaborates on "self-care" skills: exercise, diet, and relaxation. He also addresses assertiveness, building supportive relationships, taking charge of your life, risk-taking, and "growing a funny bone" (Hipp, 1985).

Conclusion

Clearly, it is time to balance the emphasis on mind, intellect, and content with attention to the body, experience, and feeling. Stress is not a natural state; it is not inevitable. School counselors can be effective role models for their students and the adults they work with. To free themselves from the habit of stress, counselors must take charge of their own lives in a way the maintains physical, mental, and spiritual balance.

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High Risk Sexual Behaviors and Adolescents: An Intervention Model

by Patricia W. Stevens

Abstract

Counselors are expected to deal with a variety of personal, educational, social, and career issues facing adolescents in today's society. In addition to these expectations, a current day phenomenon exists that will impose further demands on the activities of counselors.

The high risk behaviors engaged in by today's youth and adolescents are particularly disturbing due to the dire consequences of these behaviors. One consequence is possible infection with the AIDS virus and ultimately, death.

The current status of this developing crisis is presented along with a model that counselors can implement within their community to address this life-threatening issue.

It is estimated that by 1993, almost half a million Americans will be diagnosed with Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS), a fatal disease with no known cure (Center for Disease Control, 1989b). Fifty percent of those individuals diagnosed with AIDS will not survive more than 1.5 years beyond diagnosis, about 12% will survive more than 3 years, and all of those infected will eventually die from the disease (Center for Disease Control, 1989b). It has been estimated that 1 to 1.5 million persons in the United States are infected with the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). Infection with HIV is the first step toward the development of full-blown AIDS and individuals infected with HIV have the potential to infect other individuals indefinitely. By the end of 1991, the prediction is that 20-30% of individuals currently infected with HIV will develop AIDS (Center for Disease Control, 1988b).

Nationally, almost 25% of those diagnosed with AIDS are in their 20's (Center for Disease Control, 1989a). Given the knowledge that the virus has a latency period of from 2 to 7 years (Curran et al., 1985), it is estimated that 21% of this age group were infected during their teenage years (Janke, 1989). Adolescents currently represent only 1% of the diagnosed AIDS population (Center for Disease Control, 1988a; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1986). Many researchers believe that the rate of HIV infection in the adolescent population will increase dramatically using the criteria of the prevalence of sexual activity among members of this age group, the rates of unintended teenage pregnancies, and the frequency of other sexually transmitted diseases among adolescents (DiClemente, 1989; Singh, 1980; Zelnick & Kanter, 1980). Considering their level of sexual activity, adolescents presently engage in the highest risk behaviors for HIV infection of any population in this country.

In the state of Colorado, the rate of AIDS infection reported in 1990 was below the national average. As of December 1990, Colorado had 1,598 reported cases of AIDS. Individuals under the age of 29 represent 22% (351) of these cases. There are 5,207 reported cases of HIV infection in Colorado with 866 of these individuals under the age of 24. The State Department of Health (April Montgomery, personal communication, January 1991) estimates there are between 10,000 and 12,000 individuals in the state that are HIV infected. With this low incidence of AIDS, the inclination may be to relax educational and intervention efforts. Instead, it is imperative, particularly with youth, that this be seen as a unique window of opportunity for professional counselors to instigate preventive measures to intervene in the predicted epidemic.

High Risk Behaviors in Adolescents

By the age of 19, 50% to 70% of teenagers report being sexually active (Goodman & Cohall, 1989; Harris, 1986; Hingson, Strunin, & Berline, 1990; Hofferth, Kahn, & Baldwin, 1987; Zabin & Clark, 1983). In the general population adolescents below the age of 14 show the greatest increase in rate of initiation of sexual activity relative to other ages and also show a growing trend toward an increasing number of sexual partners (DiClemente, 1989; DiClemente, Boyer, & Mills, 1987). As of 1986, the Harris poll (Harris, 1986) reported that only 47% of the sexually active males and 25% of the sexually active females in this age group were using condoms as a contraceptive measure. In a 1990 study in Massachusetts, 31% of the adolescents who were sexually active reported using condoms (Hein, Strunin, Berlin, & Heeren, 1990).

Reducing the risk of HIV infection among teenagers is not only important for their personal well-being, but also for the safety of the children they might produce. The rate of pregnancy among sexually active teenage girls was 233/1,000 (Jones, Forrest, & Goldman, 1985; National Research Council, 1987). More than 1 in every 10 teenage women become pregnant each year, with the cumulative risk of pregnancy, up to age 20, being almost 40% (Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1981). Teenagers who have intercourse before they are 16 years of age are nearly twice as likely to become pregnant in the first 6 months as those who wait until they are 18 or 19 to begin sexual activity (Zabin & Clark, 1983).

Epidemiological data on the extent of other sexually transmitted diseases in this population suggest a high risk of HIV infection. National data on the prevalence of

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gonorrhea in sexually active females show that the highest rate of infection was in females between the ages of 10 and 19. The rate in the age group 10-14 was similar to the rate in the age group 15-19 (approximately 3,500 cases per 100,000 sexually active females). The rates of sexually transmitted diseases decrease exponentially for persons over 19 years of age (Bell & Hein, 1984; Hein, 1987). Among black teenagers the increase in sexually transmitted diseases has been linked to crack cocaine use. A total of 41% of a sample of African American teenagers interviewed in a California study reported a history of sexually transmitted diseases. These diseases were more likely to be reported in girls (55%) than in boys (34%) and by those who combined crack use with sexual relations (51%) than those who did not (32%) (Fullilove, Fullilove, Bowser, & Gross, 1990).

With this information concerning the risk behaviors that adolescents are engaged in today it is important that methods of intervention be developed to facilitate change in these risk behaviors. As members of the helping profession it is our responsibility to assist schools and the community in education and skill development.

Research and educational endeavors have been hampered by the stigma surrounding AIDS. HIV is a bloodborne retrovirus and is primarily transmitted through sexual contact and the sharing of needles in intravenous drug use. In our society, these behaviors are intertwined with morality. Discussion concerning these behaviors particularly with adolescents can create difficulty in the community. It is this very paradox that creates the problem that society faces today.

Because of these societal taboos, little education has been done with middle and high school age students. However, it is important to note that the age of first menstruation has dropped from 13.5 years in 1950 to a mean age of 11.5 for 1980. This earlier sexual maturation is an important factor to consider in developing a curriculum to address sexual permissiveness (Anastasiow, 1974; Hofferth & Hayes, 1987). In a 1990 study, Stevens examined knowledge and attitudes toward sexual permissiveness in high school students. This study indicated that adolescents have a higher level of knowledge concerning AIDS infection and transmission today than had been assumed from past literature (DiClemente, Zorn, & Temoshok, 1986; Price, Desmond & Kukulka, 1985; Strunin & Hingson, 1987). However, this knowledge did not significantly change their reported attitudes toward sexual behaviors. Although subjects indicated a belief that condoms should be worn during sexual intercourse, less than 10% of the students who were sexually active reported that they used condoms during sexual activity. Other studies confirm that AIDS-related knowledge alone does not typically change sexual behavior (Kegeles, Adler, and Irwin, 1988) and that only 20 percent of those who did alter their behavior engaged in effective AIDS-preventive methods (Strunin & Hingson, 1987).

School-Based Programs

Although a coordinated school-based program was recommended by the United States Surgeon General in 1986 (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1986) and by the Institute of Medicine of the National Academy of Sciences (1986) in order to educate adolescents about transmission of the AIDS virus and sexual permissiveness, there is still a significant deficit in this area. Despite the continuing concern and media attention given AIDS today, in a 1988 survey only half of the nation's 73 largest school systems reported providing AIDS education (Fineberg, 1988). Of those states that do provide AIDS education, few have conducted careful evaluations to identify program effectiveness (McCormick, 1987). Additionally, in a 1987 survey of 100 superintendents throughout the nation, although there was agreement that the schools had an obligation to educate young people regarding AIDS, there was little agreement on how to proceed with this process (Keough & Seaton, 1988).

Part of the difficulty in agreeing on an educational program arises from the strongly felt difference of opinion as to what should be taught in the school concerning sexual transmission of HIV. As noted, while school personnel do recognize the need for sex education programs, there is conflict concerning content and definition of program effectiveness. Is "effectiveness" to be limited to increased knowledge concerning AIDS or does it encompass skill development that results in observable, measurable sexual attitude and behavior changes? With no cure for AIDS or prevention of infection from HIV on the horizon, changes in behaviors related to the transmission of the virus appear to be the most effective means for slowing the epidemic.

Counselors need to take an active role in the schools and communities related to this issue. One method of behavior change that can be effective, practical and viable for implementation in schools and communities is Bandura's model of detrimental life style change (Bandura, 1989a). Based on Social Cognitive Learning theory and on previous experience of researchers in attempting to change smoking and drinking behaviors in the 1960s and 70s, this model offers a sound theoretical rationale for attitude and behavior change that appears to be well suited to facilitate sexual knowledge and attitude change in adolescents (Ellickson & Bell, 1990; Perry, Killen, Telch, Slinkard, & Danaher, 1980; Telch, Killen, McAlister, Perry, & Maccoby, 1982). Bandura's theory (1986) states that by observing others, one forms rules of behavior. On future occasions these rules serve as guides for action. Bandura states that repetition or practice of these rules of behavior results in internalization. This four-component model provides an effective framework for intervention.

A Detrimental Behavior Change Model

Component 1: Information

The first component of Bandura's model that can be used by counselors is informational. Primarily factual information concerning the Human Immunodeficiency Virus, Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome, methods of transmission and progress of the disease must be given. Individuals also need to be educated as to what are risky sexual and drug use practices and how infection may be avoided. At this level the counselor/therapist can offer information to assist schools, community centers, and youth programs to develop effective knowledge-based curriculum. As a first step it may be necessary to educate parents and school staff and administration concerning the importance of informing our youth about AIDS and related risk behaviors.

Component 2: Development of Self-Protective Skills

However, knowledge that a behavior should change does not automatically insure actual behavior change (Donmeyer, Marguard, Gibson, & Taylor, 1989; Edgar, Freimuth, & Hammond, 1988). Therefore, the second phase of the model is development of social and self-regulatory skills. Prevention of AIDS infection requires that individuals exercise control over their own motivations and behaviors. To achieve this self-directed change, individuals need to be given not only reasons to change their risky behaviors but also the means and resources to do so. Assisting adolescents to acquire the resources to change behavior is a complex task. Development of self-esteem and assertiveness skills are integral to this phase of the model. Not only must teenagers learn not to engage in these risk behaviors, but for healthy growth and development it is critical that they have an awareness of alternative behaviors to drug use and sexual activity that are accepted by society and by their peers.

There are distinct characteristics which define normal adolescent development. These characteristics are important to incorporate into the counselor's knowledge base as methods of effectively changing behavior are investigated. Due to the onset of puberty, emotional and biological changes take place rapidly during the teenage years. In this period adolescents develop a separate and distinct identity for themselves, but at the same time are bound to the parental dyad emotionally and financially. Acceptance by one's peer group becomes of ultimate importance at this phase of development and plays an important role in what types of attitudes and behaviors the adolescent develops (Mishne, 1986; Nielsen, 1987; Simons & Robertson, 1989).

Therefore, one effective resource is the use of peer leaders who are trained to assist other adolescents in acquiring and perfecting alternative behavior skills. Research indicates that peer counselors and leaders are highly effective in engaging other adolescents (Ellickson & Bell, 1990; Perry et al., 1980; Telch et al., 1982).

Another resource would be open-minded, non-judgmental adults who focus on healthy behaviors. Involved adults must be willing to hear and value the adolescent's conflicts and confusion. Counselors/therapists have communication skills to offer that will assist in training of peers and adults for this task. Therefore this segment of the model provides students with experiential learning opportunities that result in a positive effect on subjects' knowledge and attitudes. Group experiences at this level have participants model ways of resisting pressures from peers, discussing peer group pressures, practicing skill development, and participating in role modeling.

Component 3: Enhancement of Social Proficiency

The model's third component involves skill enhancement through guided practice. There is a difference between possessing skills and effectively using those skills. Successful behavior change therefore requires that individuals have a strong belief in their ability to exercise personal control over their behavior. Within the school and/or community setting one method of developing such skills is to incorporate simulated situations or role plays that address different risk behaviors. Guided practice in combination with interaction among the adolescents enhances one's desire to change behavior as well as belief in one's ability to handle a given situation in reality (Bandura, 1989b: Gilchrist & Schinke, 1983).

Component 4: Social Support for Personal Change

Personal change occurs within a network of social influences. The fourth component Bandura (Bandura, 1989a) mentions is the enlistment of support of social systems for personal change. Extensive and careful study of homosexual males has indicated the validity of this concept. When faced with the detrimental consequences of high-risk behaviors of others in their peer group, this population instituted dramatic behavior changes and provided support within their peer group which has resulted in significant decreases in new cases of AIDS within the homosexual population (Klein, Sullivan, Wolcott, Landsverk, Namir, & Fawzy, 1987). Research in public health further supports the belief that behavioral changes are unlikely unless one is faced with both consequences of behaviors and a support system for new behaviors (Weinstein, 1989).

This is another area where participation by counselor/therapists will be most effective. Individually, and as a group, counselor/therapists will need to be publicly involved in supporting parents, teachers, and community leaders in their efforts to educate and train our youth in the use of these healthy behaviors. Our willingness to participate personally and to access our knowledge base and our skill base is imperative.

Conclusion

A combination of school-based, family-based, and community-based programs is a powerful intervention model to facilitate change related to high risk adolescent behaviors. The model presented includes pertinent information, experiential opportunities, support systems, and reinforcement plans to change high risk behaviors. This combination of information, practice, and social support systems differentiates this model from other intervention models previously used. Professional counselors have opportunities to examine and implement such models. It is our responsibility as helping professionals to assist in the amelioration of the devastating consequences related to high risk behaviors.

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COMMUNITY COLLEGES & PARENTAL INFLUENCE IN THE COLLEGE CHOICE PROCESS

By David Beyer and Rich Feller

Abstract

This article discusses parental influence in the college choice process, particularly in terms of considering community colleges as a viable alternative. The article argues that there is too little importance given to college choice-making, that parents are more significant in the process than assumed, and that community colleges deserve and will receive increasingly more attention during the college choice process.

More than forty percent of today's college students attend America's community colleges according to the October 16, 1989, issue of the U.S. News & World Report. In a feature report rating the nation's colleges, two-year schools are highlighted as "becoming a global model for democratic higher education in the 21st century" (p. 82). The article describes these institutions as low cost, abundant with variety, close to home, and accessible to many.

Yet the 1987 report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and Learning, "College: The Undergraduate Experience in America," ignored the community, technical, and junior colleges even though they enrolled almost half of all undergraduate students. In spite of the historically unparalleled growth in both number of institutions and students enrolled, many parents and students continue to overlook the value of community colleges in assisting their children in the college choice process.

While students hope to get something special out of college, their parents can play a significant role in reinforcing this hope. "Only in America is the decal from almost any college displayed proudly on the rear window of the family car" (Boyer, 1987, p.11).

The utility of college is shared by most students throughout Colorado and the nation. High school students and their parents may have strong feelings about the importance of college, but having skills or a direct track to choosing a college is a different matter. This article argues that there is too little importance given to college choice-making, that parents are more significant in the process than assumed, and that community colleges deserve and will receive increasingly more attention during the college choice process.

With increasing costs of higher education and a more economically, racially, and educationally diverse population hoping to secure an education preparing them for a high skill quality job in the primary labor market (Feller, 1991), some form of education after high school should be considered a necessity. With community colleges featuring technical education, remedial education, education for special populations, adult basic education, strong business-education partnerships and improved articulated transfer programs, these two year schools will increasingly compete for traditional age students.

Community College Growth

Building Communities: A Vision for a New Century, a report of the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988) states that between 1965 and 1975, total enrollment at community colleges, technical, and junior colleges grew by 240 percent. This report also points out that approximately 43 percent of the nation's undergraduates and 51 percent of all first-time entering freshmen attend these colleges. Community colleges have become the largest single sector of higher education in the nation and without the flexibility of community colleges, the history of education in twentieth century and the success of middle class America would look much more impoverished. While recent growth has slowed in all of higher education, most institutions are scrambling to recruit more students as state financial support for community colleges grows.

The Community College Fact Book (American Council on Education, 1988) reports that community colleges grew from 663 junior colleges in 1946 to approximately 1200 institutions today. Dale Parnell, President of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, states in *The Neglected Majority* (1985) that:

> *Community, technical and junior colleges have come of age. It is time to recognize these institutions as colleges of excellence and to value the role they play in meeting the lifelong learning needs of an adult America. It is fundamental to the schooling process that it help individuals to develop the capacity to grow and to change throughout their lives. How much do your high school students know about lifelong learning and the opportunities found in community colleges? (p. 175)*

With the rapid expansion in the number of two-year institutions and the increasing enrollments, Parnell poses an interesting question about the knowledge of community colleges, particularly with respect to high school students. This is perhaps even more pertinent in relationship to Colorado high schools.

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Community Colleges In Colorado

Information about college choice of recent high school graduates in Colorado for the school years 1986, 1987 and 1988 indicates that the state's community colleges are not necessarily considered for postsecondary education. The number of graduates entering these institutions the fall semester after graduation is of concern when compared to other states and the national average. In the 1982 longitudinal study, *High School and Beyond*, the National Center for Education Statistics reported that eighteen percent of recent high school graduates nationally were selecting the community college for fall enrollment as their college of choice. Colorado typically has less than ten percent of the recent high school graduates who select the two year school as the college of choice. The Colorado Commission on Higher Education reports that 2096 graduates in 1984, 1474 graduates in 1987 and 2128 graduates in 1988 enrolled in Colorado community colleges (30,000 or more seniors graduate each year). Considering the overall growth in community college enrollment nationally and in Colorado, a major question concerns the reason recent high school graduates tend to select two year schools at a rate less frequently than the national average.

A study by Harris (1989), Factors Affecting Postsecondary Plans of Colorado High School Seniors, found that over half of these students suggested they would not attend a Colorado community college because of academic reputation and availability of specific programs. However, approximately 50 percent of these students could not define educational quality for community colleges in comparison to educational quality in four-year schools.

Morris (1988) found in a marketing study that the diversity of Colorado community colleges creates a confusing public image and people felt that they lacked adequate knowledge about programs and services.

These two studies offer some explanation to the low penetration rate by community colleges of recent high school graduates. Another reason related to the issue of the college choice process is described by Boyer (1987) in *College, The Undergraduate Experience in America*. His national study on America's colleges found that both parents and students considered the decision about where to attend college very difficult because there is no sound basis to make a decision. When the survey was conducted, half of the students did not feel they had enough facts about colleges to make an informed decision. Parents, in particular, expressed the need to be better informed about colleges.

Parental Influence

The need for better information becomes critical when considering the fact that the Carnegie study identified the parents as the most influential factor on the student's college choice process. Compared to teachers, counselors and friends who offer influence in the selection of a college, parents were identified as more important by fifty-one percent of the seniors. Eighty-eight percent of the parents polled wanted sons or daughters to attend college. Eighty-two percent of college-bound seniors reported that parents influenced the decision to continue their education.

The importance of the parents' role was confirmed by Harris's (1989) Colorado study. This study determined that the mother and father were the most influential in the decision to attend college and also affected the choice of a particular college. Similar results were found in research conducted in Pennsylvania by Olszak-McClaine (1986), in Oregon by Fawcett and Hoglan (1986), in Illinois by Smith and Bers (1989), and in Washington by MacDermott, Conn, & Owen (1987). Litten, Sullivan and Brodigan (1983) illustrated that the development of student perceptions often parallelled those of the parents in college choice.

These studies support the importance of parental influence in high school seniors' college choice when focusing on the community college.

John Holland (1959) theorized how students select undergraduate colleges relating student choice to a personal and environmental fit. He stated that:

> *The selection of an undergraduate institution is probably the outcome of a complex set of forces including student goals, abilities, and personality, which interact with parental values, education, socioeconomic status, and personal images of the 'best' and ideal college (p. 26).*

Hossler (1985) suggests that students in two-year colleges may be different with regard to family characteristics and parental aspirations than the four-year college student and recommends more study in this area. Jackson (1978) proposes that the college choice process may vary for students and family as the decision is not necessarily limited to which college, but also whether to attend.

Community College Student Characteristics

While some community colleges enroll a student population that differs on average from the student body at four-year colleges and universities, this may be changing. On the whole, community college students come from a lower socioeconomic background and aspire to fewer baccalaureate or higher degrees, and begin their postsecondary education with lower levels of academic achievement (American Council on Education, 1988). While these generalities are of value, it must be pointed out that community colleges enroll large numbers of academically able and ambitious students, while at the same time many four-year schools have lowered their standards as a result of decreasing numbers of traditional aged students. On the other hand, the appeal of smaller classes and greater access to faculty who teach and work in their field can prove to be attractive features considering the cost advantages of living at home.

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HELPING STUDENTS OF DIVORCED PARENTS

by Richard T. Lageose

Abstract

Students of divorced parents have become an important sub-culture within our schools. Non-traditional eclectic group counseling can meet the needs of these students.

Though divorce has long been a part of our society, the rate of divorce has dramatically increased during the last decade. In 1910, less than one per 1000 families experienced divorce. In 1980, five divorces per 1000 families were recorded (Scherman & Lepak, 1986). Presently, in 1990, as divorce has become more accepted, it is projected that 45% of the children living in the United States will experience their parents' divorce before their 18th birthday (Coffman & Roark, 1988).

Today, these children have become an important sub-culture within our society and schools. The helping profession has focused on the complex cultural, economic, legal, psychological, and sociological processes of the broken home and divorce itself. A significant trend in research suggests that despite differences with each divorce situation, the child's age and developmental process now seem to be the most important factors governing the child's response to the divorce (Scherman & Lepak, 1986).

Considering, that almost half of any given population of school children could be experiencing the after effects of divorce, the school counselor must be sensitive to development of these children.

Specifically, children of divorced parents express concerns regarding changing life-styles, loss of their previous psychological support system, abandonment, self-blame, maternal blame, defensiveness, love loss, hope of reunification, possible relocation, confused identity, loneliness, and loyalty conflicts. Within the school environment, children are sometimes seen with acting-out behavior, decline in achievement, and strained relationships with their peers and teachers (Tedder, Scherman, & Wantz, 1987). Still other children experience a "sleeper effect" whereby they have the trauma anxieties but do not show the outward signs until later on in their school years (Wallerstein, 1989). Even college success can suffer, as students indicate a highly stressful adjustment with side effects of affected interpersonal relationships, sexual identity, substance abuse, and academic performance (Lopez, 1988). Within a middle school population of 800 students, there may be as many as 360 students that may be possibly dealing with the trauma of a family divorce.

To approach student problems within the school setting, the counselor has traditionally relied on individual counseling as a primary intervention strategy (Myrick, 1987). This strategy has allowed the counselor to quickly focus on individuals with issues of child abuse, limited social skills, student violence, drug abuse, and students with intense emotional needs. However, a recognized drawback of individual counseling is that only a few students can be accommodated and other students with similar issues are not seen by the counselor. For example, in a recent student internship at a middle school, the counselors, at best, were seeing only about ten to fifteen students on a one-time basis out of 700 per day. Considering that more than 300 students could be experiencing issues, such as divorce within the family structure, the actual number of students needing help far exceeded the availability of individual counseling sessions. The answer lies in problem/growth-orientated group counseling. The counselor can form small groups at each grade level, allowing students to discuss issues such as divorce, and recognize they are not alone (Teder et al., 1987).

The following steps are suggested in establishing a group:

- **Design a developmental plan for group sessions**
- **Meet with staff and administration to gain support**
- **With consent of the teacher, make presentation to classes**
  - **Purpose of group**
  - **Function**
  - **How student can benefit from group**
  - **Organize groups by having the students privately contact the counselor after the presentation if interested**

The counselor may need to screen and assess the interested students to insure group compatibility. Issues on child abuse, incest, etc., may require individual attention and not be appropriate for group discussion. Ethical issues as to what can not be discussed must be considered to protect the rights of the children and parental adults.

The groups may be heterogeneous within each grade level, and limited to about eight students per group. Group sessions could meet once a week for a term of six weeks depending on the students' needs. Contractual arrangements would also have to be made with the teachers regarding a time to meet. In a similar effort organized by Coffman and Roark (1988), sessions were totally encouraged by the teaching staff and received full support. Once the groups were organized, permission from the parents may be required, depending on school board policies.

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Strategies used within school counseling sessions can vary. While doing internship training at a middle school, the counselors used the Rogerian Person-Centered approach as an opening phase of each counseling session. The counselors displayed empathy, understanding, acceptance, nonpossessive warmth, caring, and a genuine interest in the student. It is highly encouraged that this strategy be continued within the group sessions. It is important for the counselor to establish a bonding and trusting relationship with the students.

The school counselors observed during the internship also favored using the behavioral approach along with the Rogerian introduction. Behavioral counseling is easily accountable, action-oriented, brief, and offers immediate consequences for positive and negative behavior by the student (Myrick, 1987).

The counselors should first develop a rapport with the students, allowing them to feel comfortable and receptive. Soon after, the counselor would carefully explore problems disruptive to the student. In the sessions at the middle school, the family background of each student provided significant information. In almost all cases, students who had problems, i.e., bad grades, inappropriate behavior, etc., came from a divorced family that contained on-going trauma.

In most discipline cases at the middle school, advice was given to students on what actions had to be corrected, and if they were not corrected, students would be referred to the principal for further action. This generally indicated some form of punishment for the student. In agreement with several of the team teachers, contingency contracts were occasionally used to indicate the students' corrective action and document the consequences if the requirements were not met, i.e., being expelled for a limited time. In virtually every case, student response was negative. The student simply ignored the advice, continued present behavior, and accepted the consequences. From personal observations, students with an unresolved issue about their families, used behavior at school as a way of striking back. As long as the issue remained unaddressed, there was little desire to improve school performance, no matter what consequences are imposed.

A more effective way to approach students is through a combination of counseling strategies, or eclecticism. Eclecticism allows the counselor to blend various concepts and techniques to meet the needs of the client (Corey, 1990). **The following six phase strategy approach is recommended for the group sessions for students from divorced families.**

- **bonding/trust**
- **divorce clarification**
- **exploration of feelings**
- **problem-solving techniques**
- **behavior identification/change**
- **closure**

The introduction phase is a critical session because the student must begin to feel safe and comfortable to explore inner beliefs and feelings. The counselor can foster bonding to allow time for students to get to know each other, agree on confidentially, and establish goals, limits, and group ground rules.

The second phase involves clarifying a definition of divorce. The counselor should not assume the student knows the facts. Clarification and allowing the students to express their views are important. Besides clearing up misconceptions, the students will become actively involved with each other and realize they have mutual experiences. A short trip to a court room to speak to a judge or lawyer would enhance this segment.

Beliefs and feelings surrounding a divorce, i.e., losing a parent, having to relocate, fear of loss of parental support, etc., are important in the third phase. Actual details of a particular parental divorce should be avoided since it will encourage external peer talking and take the focus away from the student. Coping strategies can be introduced to the students, exploring how these techniques can be applied to them.

Practical problem-solving techniques, developed within the fourth phase, are also important for the students. Many students may view themselves as victims and practical problem-solving information can help them take action to regain their self-esteem and self-worth. A systematic approach in identifying the problem, defining the situation, considering alternatives, and taking positive action to reduce their anxiety levels will greatly increase the student's confidence as well as improve their emotional state.

Being able to identify and express feelings as related to school behavior is a primary goal in the fifth phase. The counselor should encourage group participation in exploring feelings, words attached to divorce and how those feelings are translated in negative behavior at school. Positive behaviors can then be explored that will reinforce positive esteem and meet the needs of the student while at school.

One of the most important elements of a counseling session is group closure. The various phases should be reviewed as to what was learned. Request that the students summarize their experiences and what changes they will incorporate in their lives. Finally, discuss if there are any issues still open that need resolution. Discuss the feasibility of having a one-time, follow-up group session several weeks later to discuss progress and adjustment.

This may be an appropriate time to offer feedback to the staff and administration on the outcome of the groups. Accountability is important to show that the time vested in the group sessions away from other school activities was beneficial for the school staff as well as the students.

Helping the student of divorced parents would not be complete until some guidance is offered to parents. A major influence on the student for continued growth is adequate support from the parents. Besides parents having their own personal adjustments, major misconceptions exist regarding what their children think, feel, and need (Stangeland, Pellegreno, & Lundholm, 1989). A group session could be offered to parents, helping them develop ways to provide emotional and developmental support to their children.

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SUICIDAL IDEATION: RECOGNITION AND INTERVENTION FOR COUNSELORS

by

Ira David Welch, Ed.D, Michael H. Craine, Ph.D, and David M. Gonzalez, Ph.D

Abstract

This article provides a test for counselors to determine their current level of knowledge concerning suicide. It also provides methods of determining the potential suicide risks for persons as well as strategies for suicide intervention. It is intended for counselors who deal with suicidal behavior on an occasional basis.

Counselors who have to cope with suicidal behavior in clients on a regular basis remain sensitive to the indicators of potential suicide and methods of intervention. Counselors who are confronted with suicidal behavior in clients on an occasional basis, however, may tend to forget important signals and have to search their memories for intervention procedures when faced with a crisis. This article is directed to counselors who, in a sense, need an update and renewal on information on suicide, recognition of suicide indicators and intervention strategy.

The first section of this article contains a *Suicide Information Test* to evaluate what the reader knows and what may have been forgotten. After the reader has taken the test, it will provide a rough guide for what needs to be learned and what might then be taught to colleagues and clients. The *Suicide Information Test* is a multiple choice test. The answers are provided on the page following the test.

SUICIDE INFORMATION TEST

Circle the best answer. When you have answered all the questions, correct your test with the answers provided.

1. Suicide accounts for more than ___ deaths per year in the United States.
   a. 10000
   b. 15000
   c. 20000
   d. 25000

2. Suicide is the ___ cause of death among adolescents.
   a. most frequent
   b. second most frequent
   c. third most frequent
   d. fourth most frequent

3. Among medical patients, the group which has the highest suicide rate is...
   a. terminally ill
   b. chronically ill

4. The age group most likely to commit suicide is...
   a. 15-20
   b. 20-40
   c. 40-60
   d. 60-80

5. The profession with the highest suicide rate is...
   a. Psychologists
   b. Nurses
   c. Morticians
   d. Physicians

6. Clues to suicide would most likely be found in...
   a. verbal statements
   b. behavioral acts
   c. situational events
   d. all of the above
   e. none of the above

7. Of the following, the emotion most often associated with suicide is...
   a. anger
   b. jealousy
   c. depression
   d. frustration

8. Suicide attempts are highest among...
   a. unmarried, expectant mothers
   b. married, expectant mothers
   c. women who are not pregnant

9. The means most likely to be used in a suicide is...
   a. drug overdose
   b. gun
   c. slash wrists
   d. jumping from a high place

10. The best predictor of a suicide attempt is...
    a. a family member attempting suicide
    b. reading an article about suicide
    c. a close friend attempting suicide
    d. a previous suicide attempt

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11. A condition which increases the likelihood of suicide is...
    a. psychosis
    b. alcohol use
    c. drug use
    d. all of the above
    e. none of the above

12. Of the groups listed, which has the highest suicide rate?
    a. African-Americans
    b. Whites
    c. Asians
    d. Hispanics

13. Of the groups listed, which has the highest suicide rate?
    a. African-Americans
    b. Whites
    c. Native Americans
    d. Hispanics

14. Suicide is more likely among the...
    a. single, never married
    b. married
    c. divorced or widowed

15. The sex most likely to attempt suicide is __; the sex most likely to complete suicide is ___.
    a. male
    b. female

(Adapted from Welch, Zawistoski & Smart, in press)

Check your selections against the answers provided on the next page. As a guide, if you score below 80% (less than 12), look over the answers provided by the authors and review your reasoning for those questions about which you were uncertain or wrong. The point here is, of course, to learn and be informed rather than to grade knowledge. In fact, by taking this test and by checking the answers, you have informed yourself.

(Answers to Suicide Information Test: 1.d, 2.b, 3.b, 4.d, 5.d, 6.d, 7.c, 8.c, 9.b, 10.d, 11.d, 12.b, 13.c, 14.c, 15.b,a.)

Recognizing Suicidal Ideation

It is generally recognized that most of the persons attempting suicide do not want to die. In fact, over 5 million living Americans have attempted suicide (National Center for Health Statistics, 1987). The hope for suicide prevention lies in this paradox. Persons who are contemplating suicide do not so much want to die as they want to stop living in the circumstances in which they find themselves. This difference, while it may appear subtle, is substantial; it is the difference between the permanence of death and the temporary nature of many human problems.

Suicide is often preventable. The first step in suicide prevention is the recognition of signals. Suicide is not usually an impulsive act. There are a number of clues given by persons who are contemplating suicide. As many as 80% of the people who attempt or commit suicide communicate their intention to someone (National Center for Health Statistics, 1987). This section is provided to help the counselor recognize the symptoms of suicidal ideation.

SUICIDE POTENTIAL CHECKLIST

The purpose of this Suicide Potential Checklist is to provide counselors with a quick method to assess suicidal risks. It is best to be direct with your questions when you need specific information. Ask directly for any information that is not given in the normal course of the conversation, then check "yes" or "no" as you obtain the needed information.

__ Yes __ No 1. There has been a recent loss (job, relationship, money, surgery, status, death, suicide).

__ Yes __ No 2. There is evidence of social isolation and lack of friends.

__ Yes __ No 3. There has been a previous suicide attempt.

__ Yes __ No 4. There is a lack of a philosophical or religious orientation opposed to suicide.

__ Yes __ No 5. There is a history of suicide in the family.

__ Yes __ No 6. The person is over 65, bereaved or in physical pain.

__ Yes __ No 7. There are voices commanding suicide.

__ Yes __ No 8. The person is depressed or coming out of depression.

__ Yes __ No 9. There is a wish to die; self-destructive acts are reported, and resistance to help in a previous suicide attempt was evident.

__ Yes __ No 10. The person has thought of a method and the method is available.

(Adapted from Welch, Zawistoski & Smart, in press)

Count the number of "Yes" answers. A person for whom an answer of "Yes" is determined on three items is considered to be at risk. The more "Yes" answers, the greater the risk.

Two other systems of identifying suicide risks have been developed. One seems more suitable for a crisis situation and the other for a person who has a more chronic problem with suicide ideation and attempts.

The first system uses the mnemonic SLAP (Welch et al., in press) to help the practitioner identify a potential suicidal person. Using this mnemonic can help assess the risk to the person. The letter "S" means specificity. It reminds the counselor to check how specific the persons plan of action is. The more specific the plan, the more danger there is. The letter "L" means lethality. The more lethal the method, the greater the risk (e.g., a gun versus aspirin). The letter "A" means availability. It asks if the means are accessible. The more accessible, the more dangerous the method. The letter "P" means proximity to help. How isolated is the person? The more isolated from help the person is, the greater the danger. If a client presents a counselor with a statement of suicidal ideation, then the mnemonic SLAP gives direction concerning the types of questions that can be used to assess risk.

The other system uses the mnemonic CARL (Welch et al., in press) to assess risk to persons who have attempted suicide previously and are known to the counselor. CARL helps to determine the extent of the present danger. The letter "C" means chronology. How long ago was a previous attempt? The more recent, the greater the danger. The letter "A" means awareness. In the previous attempt, did the person believe the method was lethal. They may have used aspirin, but the person genuinely believed that aspiring was deadly. The more genuine the belief in lethality, the greater the threat is that another attempt will be made. The letter "R" means rescue. Did the person assist or resist in the rescue? If they resisted, the danger of another attempt is greater. The letter "L" means lethality. How lethal is their present plan. If the method chosen is highly lethal, then the more dangerous the plan and the threat to life.

Both SLAP and CARL are quick reminders of the questions that should be asked of a person making a suicide threat (e.g., a verbal or written statement of a wish to end his or her life). These mnemonics can be helpful in gaining information and provide clues for the sort of intervention that is needed. The following section provides suggestions for intervening in suicidal thoughts and gestures.

Suicide Intervention

The suggestions below are meant to provide positive ideas for specific attitudes or actions to take with a person with suicidal ideation. Taken together, they form a plan to stop a person from attempting suicide.

Be positive and emphasize the desirable options for the suicidal person. Suicidal people have reached a point of hopelessness and helplessness. They believe there are no options for their lives. Emphasizing the desirable options can serve to help the suicidal person rethink an option previously rejected.

Be calm and understanding. The counselor can be a calming influence on a suicidal person. Strive to stay calm. Suicidal people are anxious people. The counselor can have a calming influence on them just by remaining calm. Seek to understand what the suicidal person is saying. The counselor's understanding may lead to options.

Emphasize the temporary nature of the problems the person is facing. For many people, the crisis they are in will pass and be resolved if they do not kill themselves. It is important to stress the suicide is a permanent solution to a temporary problem.

Be confident. The confidence of the counselor can be reassuring to the person contemplating suicide. If the counselor is agitated and uncertain, then it is not likely that the counselor can be of much help to the suicidal person.

Tell the suicidal person you care. Counselors do care about people. It may be a philosophical or even an abstract caring. It is there, nevertheless. Communicate this caring. If the counselor cares, then there may be the possibility that others care as well. This may well be the intervention that prevents the suicide.

Keep talking. It is important to talk to a suicidal person. Keep them talking as long as possible. Talking itself may help the crisis pass. If drugs or alcohol are involved, then you can talk until the person is less under the influence of the chemical substance. As the influence of drugs or alcohol wanes, then the suicidal thoughts may pass as well.

Stay with the person. Do stay with the person. Use the telephone to call for help. If the person is willing, walk to another room where other people are present. Don't leave them alone. Stay with the person until you can find a way to get others involved.

Get other people involved. As quickly as possible, involve other people. Call friends, roommates, relatives or other professionals as soon as you can. Don't press the issue, but as soon as possible get others involved. The more people involved, the less likely that the person will be able to attempt suicide. It divides the stress. It can show that more than one person cares.

Find out if the person has a plan. Find out if they have a plan. Have the person talk about the plan so you can determine how well it is formulated. Use SLAP or CARL as a guide to determine how detailed the plan is.

Do what you can to disrupt the plan. Determine what you can do to interrupt the person's plan. Frequently, suicidal persons do not have more than one plan. If you can keep a person talking until 5:07 pm when he or she had planned to jump in front of the 5:05 pm train, it doesn't automatically follow that he or she will go out and jump in front of the 6:05. Suicidal people have run out of options. They are not necessarily impulsive and it may take them some time to think of another plan. In that time, the crisis may pass.

Some Don'ts of Suicide Intervention

There are a few methods that simply do not work well. The authors suggest avoiding the following interventions.

Do not try to disarm a suicidal person. If a counselor attempts to take a weapon away from a suicidal person, then it is possible that both the counselor and the suicidal person may be accidently injured or killed. It is important to ask, but do not attempt to disarm a suicidal person. If a weapon is given willingly, take it and put it away.

Do not value honesty over life saving. Much is made of honesty and authenticity in the counseling profession. In suicide intervention, it is more important to save a life than it is to protect confidentiality or maintain trust. Without going overboard, if it is necessary to use deception to save a life, then that is effective suicide intervention.

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SELF ESTEEM

Continued from Page 2

troublesome events as posing a further threat to his self-esteem. He reacts with feelings of fear, inadequacy and depression, and thus his adaptive behavior becomes distorted. At this point the drug is valued for its perceived ability to lessen the pain and give one greater confidence.

Other arguments bolster the belief that abuse depends greatly on level of self-esteem. Ausubel (1958) concludes that whether or not an individual first chooses to try a drug, then continues or not, depends more on the personality than the factor of availability. Blum concurs, stating that "for the majority, initiation into tobacco and illicit-exotic drug use is not in response to felt social pressures - that is, no strain or compulsion is admitted" (Blum, 1969, p. 348). There is a definite difference in the adolescent user who indulges because the need to belong overpowers other considerations, and is reacting to peer pressure, contrary to the abuser who indulges repeatedly due to overwhelming internal considerations. The user is called a reactive addict, responding to transitory developmental pressures of adolescence and seeing drugs as a means for acceptance and a vehicle to defy traditional norms. He feels impotent and status-less, and is looking for support and approval. The abuser, or primary addict, looks to drugs for the specific adjustive value for particular personality defects (Scherer, Ettinger, & Mudrich, 1972).

Sakell says the two traits common in substance abusers are low self-esteem and an external locus of control (1985). Ketchel and Bieger (1989) found statistical significance between adolescent low self-esteem as measured by *Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory* and increased substance use. Lewis and Lewis (1983) state that health behaviors are determined most by self-concept and self-esteem. Thus, current research is highly supportive of the correlative aspect of substance use and the variable of low self-esteem, low self-efficacy and depression (Ketchel & Bieger, 1989).

Ironically and sadly enough, the addict continues to use in an effort to boost self-esteem, yet in his anesthetized state will do things that would shame, disgrace and embarrass the average person.

In conclusion, substance abuse among adolescents depends on a number of factors, however, lack of self-esteem predisposes a teenager to become a victim of substance abuse. The term victim is appropriate because this deviant behavior really reflects a deficit in parenting over which the adolescent has limited power. Substances are seen as the magical cure for their pain, their feelings of worthlessness, their feelings of inadequacy, their mechanism for coping with overwhelming high parental expectations and aspirations, or the coping mechanism to forget parental neglect.

The approach to drug and alcohol prevention must be comprehensive and multi-faceted. It must begin early. It should include the community, the family, and the school. It should offer interpersonal and intrapersonal skill development. The myth that alcohol and drug use is a rite of passage must be shattered. Zero tolerance should be the mass message. And finally, it must be understood that a child's mental health and well-being, his/her self-esteem, is a crucial target in this campaign against substance use.

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BEING HERE: THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTEGRITY IN COUNSELING & STUDENT AFFAIRS LEADERSHIP

by Tim Hoopingarner

Integrity is as vital to effective living as it is to effective leadership, and the blocks to being fully alive are also blocks to leadership. The literature is replete with new materials on how to conduct the "external" activities of leadership, yet very few address the essential internal issues of integrity, of how to "be" a leader. As student affairs organizations and society become more complex and continue to change at a rapid pace, there remain fewer concrete methods of "doing" leadership. It is essential to develop internal completeness, soundness and integrity in order to stay in touch with the world and oneself. When prescriptive techniques for leadership (and living) fail, there are only internal referents, and these must be consciously developed. As Bennis and Nanus (1985) note, there is not only confusion about what leadership is and who demonstrates it, but it is also impossible to teach "leadership" per se. In light of the unclear definition of leadership, and the inability to actually teach leadership skills, it is evident that the development of integrity is central to effective leadership. Student affairs professionals and counselors should have as a goal the development of integrity, as the ability to "be here" is important to working with clients, and in leading others. Successful counselors and student affairs leaders of the future will be those who have recognized their own distractions, attachments, and addictions, and have made conscious efforts to develop their own integrity. "Leadership compasses" will be who one is, not what one does.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss vital clues for Western culture on how to develop and maintain personal integrity. This will be done by discussing limitations of current leadership training, and the powerful insights provided by the paradigm of the addictive process.

External and Internal Approaches to Leadership

Bennis and Nanus (1985) state that the gap between management education and the reality of leadership at the workplace is disturbing. They go on to indicate that "The major problem is that what management education does do moderately well is to train good journeymen/women managers...(which) is far removed from the creative and deeply human processes required of leadership" (pp. 219-220). Organizational or educational environments in which leadership activities are prescribed may actually exclude the development of vital yet intangible leadership skills. Where then, is one to turn in order to develop these necessary skills? The ability to "be here" is essential to leadership at any level, and writings by Schaef (1988), Fassel (1990), and others suggest that student affairs professionals (including counselors) turn within in order to examine the processes which may block them from being fully alive, present, and in tune with their integrity.

. . . the development of personal integrity is the key to being an effective leader.

Current Views of Leadership

Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge (1985) is the result of extensive research conducted by Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus of 90 top executives. This definitive book, frequently cited in the literature on leadership, has been the focus of much formal and informal discussion in the past six years and serves as a guidepost regarding what one should do in a leadership role. Interestingly, the authors do not pretend to build a step-by-step guide to leadership, nor do they begin their research with a static format of leadership in mind. Their conclusions were based on "open" conversations with the 90 executives chosen for the study. The "four keys of effective leadership" they define emerged as commonalities in these conversations. They admit that "We fervently wish that there were available to us a simple way to discuss, let alone teach, leadership in a more straightforward, step-by-step way. But that would be misleading, and in the end, not at all helpful" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p. 227). **The authors do propose four strategies for leadership, which include:**

1) **Paying Attention Through Vision**
2) **Meaning through Communication**
3) **Trust through Positioning**
4) **The Deployment of Self.**

Each of these strategies hint at the "creative and deeply human processes required of leadership," yet due to their organizational context, fall short of discussing the personal and necessarily internal work which is required of student affairs leaders and counselors. Thus, it appears there are formal channels for learning the skills required for management, and through definitive works such as Leadership we may ascertain the focuses of successful leaders. Although these provide pragmatic suggestions for "doing" leadership, they fail to provide information regarding the vital ability to "be" a leader. This article argues that the development of personal integrity is the key to being an effective leader.

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Integrity and Leadership

Integrity may be defined as: "1. being complete, wholeness. 2. unimpaired condition; soundness. 3. uprightness, honesty, and sincerity" (Webster's New World Dictionary, 1962). Less formally, integrity may be seen as:

1) clarity of purpose and direction, willingness to take responsibility

2) absolute honesty, even in the face of other politically correct alternatives

3) a positive attitude, acceptance of "what is," an ability to be in touch with a full range of emotions

4) "Connectedness" including a lack of self-centeredness, low need for control; being in touch with oneself on a moment-to-moment basis; connection to the "team," and connection to one's spirituality.

What counselor or student affairs leader would not like to be identified with these admirable traits? Bennis and Nanus (1985) hint at the issue of personal integrity when they discuss the importance of trust, of clarity of vision, of consistency, and of "managing yourself." Werner Erhardt quoted in Leaders discusses personal integrity in relation to criticism (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Ram Dass (1972) provides an "Eastern" perspective on integrity, and interestingly, on counseling as: "the only thing you have to offer another human being, ever, is your own state of being" (p. 6). Thus, these works touch on the issue of integrity without exploring the issue as central to leadership.

"Integrity" might best be used to describe the condition of being fully alive, of living in the present, and of being in touch with one's own inner, emotional self. Blocks to successful living are blocks to successful leadership. Although integrity is vital to successful leadership, the distractions from being "fully complete" and of "unimpaired condition" are many in our society. Dass (1872) refers to these blocks as "attachments." To Western culture, the more accurate description may be "addictions."

Effects of Addiction on Integrity

The wide variety of distractions from one's "inner self" include (but are not limited to): alcohol, drugs, food, relationships, sex, gambling and workaholism. Perhaps most important to the topic of leadership in counseling and student affairs is the pervasive addiction of workaholism. There exist both substance addictions such as drugs and alcohol, as well as process addictions, including gambling, "codependent" relationships, and workaholism, to name but a few.

Anne Wilson-Schaef (1988) relates in *The Addictive Organization*, the observations of a Fortune 500 company executive who wonders aloud about the inability of executives to implement significant permanent change: "What is it that eludes us when we try to implement these changes?" (p. 3). Schaef suggests addictive processes are the cause of that which eludes the executive, and she describes the pervasive effects of addiction in Western culture, as well as suggestions for recovering from these addictions (Schaef, 1988). Addiction is frequently considered to be the curse of the "gutter alcoholic" or the "junkie" drug user. Yet as Beth Ann Krier (1990) suggests in *Everyday Addicts*, "*It's virtually impossible to be alive and functioning in U.S.* society without being some kind of junkie" (p. E10). Krier relates Schaef's view that most individuals become addicted to television, relationships, food, romance, nicotine, caffeine, or other compulsive behaviors early in life. This has profound implications for counselors, for the workplace, and for the organizational leader. As Fassel (1990) notes, "The addictive process puts a buffer between ourselves and (our) feelings. It takes us out of touch." The addictive process "keeps us unaware of what is going on inside us" (Schaef, 1987, p. 18). Clearly, for counselors and other student affairs professionals the paradigm of the addictive process holds powerful clues regarding integrity in the workplace and in life. Fassel (1990) quotes Lawrence Chickering in the *Wall Street Journal*, in regard to addiction: "why (do) large numbers of people in all social and economic classes choose to anesthetize themselves regularly from the experiences of ordinary life?" (p. 111). The dangers of living in addiction, or without one's integrity, are frightening. For instance, the early stages of work addiction, to which leaders are susceptible, include rushing, compulsive work activity, confusion, distorted belief in one's abilities, control over others (including students/clients), and mild levels of dishonesty. At more advanced stages, the workaholic leader may experience severe physical symptoms including self-abusive work schedules, may become emotionally dead and self-centered, and may exhibit a variety of dishonest, inconsistent behaviors (Fassel, 1990). Certainly, leaders in counseling and student affairs want to avoid the debilitating effects of working from a perspective of addiction and may wish to pursue "living in process" which, simply put, is "being in touch with one's deeper emotions, deeper issues" (Krier, 1990).

A Case Study

After a year in her new job as Director of Student Services, Larita was painfully aware that "something wasn't right" in her life and work. Despite praise from her supervisor, many hours of overtime and dedication to her job, she felt unhappy. Looking back, she realized that she had been increasingly anxious about problems on the job, frequently sullen and angry at home, and had not taken time to meet new people in her community.

Larita sought counseling through a community agency, and learned some methods of "managing" her life and work more effectively. Despite the outward appearance of calm and control, Larita recognized that her emotions were in turmoil. Further work in counseling, coupled with exploration of the 12-step program of Workaholics Anonymous (W.A.), helped Larita recognize that she was continuing to act out a life-long pattern of compulsive behavior in her work. Central to her recovery was recognition of her need for control, and her "image management" which belied the disparity between her "inner" and "outer" self.

Through "working" the twelve steps of Workaholics Anonymous, and attending meetings of W.A., Larita began developing her integrity and her spiritual life. Although not fully recovered (12 step programs suggest a life-long process of recovery), Larita recognizes greater continuity between her feelings and actions, and a willingness to speak out on her own perceptions and feelings, even when in uncomfortable circumstances. Her co-workers, especially subordinates, note greater congruence between what Larita says and what she emotes.

In Larita's case, the 12-step program of Workaholics Anonymous has provided her with "tools for living" which guide her personal and professional life. With conscious effort, it is possible that Larita will be able to develop and maintain full integrity in her feelings and actions. Workaholics Anonymous is working for Larita, and there are other methods to develop one's integrity as well. Interestingly, the literature available consistently seems to return to spirituality as the source of integrity. Thus, the many adaptions of the 12-step program of Alcoholics Anonymous (Alcoholics Anonymous, 1976), the teaching in the *Tao of Leadership*, and the mediations in *The Only Dance There Is* all suggest some type of spiritual activity to develop integrity. Each of these also suggest the individual must make personal choices regarding the perceptions of spirituality and spiritual activities. As with leadership, there are no prescriptions for development of integrity, although there are guideposts.

Conclusion

Leadership is one of the most often-discussed topics in student affairs divisions today. Through books, training courses, and degree programs, there are excellent prescriptions for political skills and management techniques available, yet there is a lack of information regarding the vital ability to "be" a leader. Counselors and other student affairs professionals are often trained to remain in touch with their "inner selves" (which is the source of integrity), yet there are many distractions from being in touch with one's inner self, both inside and outside of the workplace. These distractions are blocks to successful living, as well as to successful leadership. Prescriptions for leading and living are necessarily limited, and many times will not serve the needs of the individual, or may not fit certain situations. When prescriptive techniques fall short or fail, there are only internal referents to guide our actions. Thus, personal integrity, or who we are, is more important to effective leadership than techniques, or what we do. The daradigm of the addictive process provides guideposts to developing and remaining in touch with our integrity. Successful counselors and student affairs leaders of the future will be those who have made conscious efforts to develop their own integrity.

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SUICIDAL IDEATION

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Do not philosophize, moralize, criticize or argue. Any attempt to make the person feel stupid, immoral, or irrational (any negative feeling for that matter) may reinforce the feelings that the person already has about worthlessness, hopelessness and helplessness. It is better to be caring and understanding than to be harsh and critical.

Do not be flip, nonchalant or casual about death. It is more important to appear concerned and receive talk of suicide seriously. Such paradoxical approaches have a certain dramatic appeal and may seem to work well in the movies, but not in actual practice.

Do not take responsibility for the death of a suicidal person. Professional people must take care to protect themselves in crisis situations. Ultimately, suicide is a decision. Recognize that one has little real control over whether a person decides to live or die.

Summary

Counselors in the community and in the schools do encounter people who are contemplating suicide. In the United States, approximately every 20 minutes a person kills himself or herself. For young people, there are nearly 200 attempts for every completed suicide. The suicide rate is increasing among young people (National Center for Health Statistics, 1987). Prevention is possible. When a counselor intervenes to save a life, he or she protects not only the potential suicide but an estimated six other people as well. This widening circle of people affected by suicide is spreading as attempts and completions grow. It is the authors hope that the information contained in this article will result in the decline of the tragic numbers.

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COLLEGE CHOICE PROCESS

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Blurring of the Differences

In that many baby boom parents attended four-year schools, inputs to their children from their college experience may not prove accurate to what one finds today. With the increasing number of older four-year college students and the move to accountability and student outcomes on all campuses, some distinct differences between community colleges and four-year schools are less clear. Articulation and course transfer has a greater opportunity for the community college student wanting further education with increased remedial education and technological learning aids on all campuses. This, along with the growing understanding of and commitment to lifelong learning, suggests greater respect for all educational options. Where one goes to college may be less of a factor than the fact that continuing education after high school is a necessity. Students today are concerned more with finding a job while in college due to higher costs and are less concerned with completing school in four years. These changes put the choice of choosing a community college after high school in a new and more positive light.

Summary

Considering the significant growth in community colleges and changing face and nature of all of higher education, greater information about and respect for community college seems imperative. With escalating costs of higher education and the significant role that parents play in influencing student choice in the college choice-making process, it seems critical that counselors help parents recognize these factors. High school counselors would be well advised to learn about Colorado's community colleges, extend as much support to recruiters as granted four-year admissions staff, and work to highlight the advantages of the community college experience to students and parents. In that people are most comfortable with what they know and have experience, it seems that counselors and parents have much to learn about the advantages offered by community colleges during the college selection process.

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DIVORCED PARENTS

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In conclusion, counselors must be sensitive and alert to the growing number of children of divorced parents. Because of limited resources and time, individual counseling techniques will not be adequate to provide help to these students. However, through carefully planned group work, the counselors can reach more students and use the dynamics of group counseling to expand the awareness/effects of divorce with the students. Group sessions will also allow the counselors to go beyond the surface behavioral problem to reach the core issue many students face without the benefit of counseling.

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MEETING STUDENT NEEDS THROUGH SCHOOL SUPPORT GROUPS

by LuAnn Costa and Sandra S. Nearpass

Abstract

Interviews exploring how effective support groups are functioning were conducted with 25 high school counselors. Results indicated that successful programs share certain features but specific differences also exist. Implications for school counselors and school personnel are discussed.

Today's secondary schools are faced with increasing numbers of students who are "acting out" personal and family problems in the school environment. Family therapist, Michael P. Nichols (1984), noted the growing disturbance and striking shift toward instability since the 1960s in American family life. Still another family therapist, Virginia Satir, estimated that 96% of all families are dysfunctional to some degree (Watkins, 1989). Many of these problems surface in the school setting and ultimately interfere with learning. Counselors need to address these issues before optimal learning can occur. Insisting on academic excellence while ignoring adolescents' emotional needs may result in indifference and alienation or increased aggressiveness and hostility in the school environment.

Support groups appear to be one method of meeting the needs of large numbers of students at risk. Evidence is mounting that support groups can be a powerful and potent method of counseling in the schools which is, at least, as effective as the traditional one-to-one method and, perhaps, even more effective (Bauman, 1986; Corey, 1985; Furman and Pratt, 1985; Huey, 1983; Johnson and Johnson, 1987; Myrick and Haight, 1972; Nagle, Gresham, and Johnson, 1979; Nearpass, 1989; Ohlsen, Horne and Lawe; Omizo and Omizo, 1988; Stone and Peeks, 1986; Strother and Harvill, 1986; White, 1981). Students with serious family problems such as violence, substance abuse, and sexual abuse are turning to school counselors for help and guidance. This is reflective of the national trend of individuals relying on a plethora of support groups to ameliorate family difficulties (Leerhsen, Lewis, Pomper, Davenport, & Nelson, 1990). In the school setting, groups have evolved into an efficacious and efficient means of assisting students in coping with diverse issues and concerns which inhibit their school success. Some of these issues and concerns include drug and alcohol use and abuse, family systems and dysfunctional families, step-families and nontraditional families, suicide, violence, eating disorders, rape or date rape, teen parenting, grief and loss, transitions, living on your own, and achievement pressures.

These issues so inhibit students' ability to learn that school personnel are recognizing the value of addressing them within the school setting. A quote from one assistant principal exemplifies this attitude. In reference to students missing a class to attend a group, she states, "It's a short term loss for a long term gain . . . better to have a straight (available) kid four days a week than a kid who is high (unavailable) five days a week." Another administrator claims that a systematic group program has enhanced the climate of the entire school, because of the involvement of so many students and staff. In one school, so many students wanted to participate that it was necessary to establish fourteen groups per week. Students ask for support and request groups in order to cope with problems or just normal life stresses, and there is always a waiting list.

Group dynamic scholars generally cite the advantages of group counseling over one-to-one counseling (Johnson and Johnson, 1987; Nearpass, 1989; Ohlsen, Horne, and Lawe, 1988; Riordan and Beggs, 1987; Schwartz and Ward, 1986; Trotzer, 1977; Yalom, 1975; Wakelee-Lynch, 1990). Such benefits as peer confrontation, multiple modeling and feedback, improved reality testing, increased altruistic behavior and affiliation, effective decision-making and problem-solving, and the economical delivery of counseling services are well-known. Counselors can impact a significantly larger number of students in a shorter period of time in a group context than in individual work and can increase the potential for identifying students in need of more intensive counseling.

This exploratory study was conducted in order to determine what group techniques and programs were currently being implemented successfully in high schools in the state of Colorado. Additional questions concerned specific group topics, structure and format of groups, identifying group facilitators and the necessary training needed by them, common pitfalls as well as successes, and available resources for conducting groups within the school setting.

METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was designed to provide data to use in developing a group counseling program for Smoky Hill High School and other schools in the Cherry Creek District of Denver, Colorado. Twenty-eight interviews of high school counselors identified through a counselor network and the National Organization of Student Assistant Programs and Professionals (NOSAPP) were conducted

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by one of the authors. Fifteen of the high schools were, socioeconomically, above average high schools in the Greater Metropolitan Denver Area. The remaining ten, of the same socioeconomic status, were located in other cities throughout the state of Colorado. Three interviewees were coordinators of district programs; hence, that data was excluded. Five of the 25 interviews were completed by phone due to distance and time constructions. The remaining 20 interviews occurred at the actual school site. Each interview ranged form 45 minutes to two hours with 75% of them comprising the full two hours of interview time. Interviewing began on August 31 and was completed in late October, 1989.

RESULTS

Some of the programs were mandated from the district level and some occurred as a result of school-level needs. Although some included outside training while still others emerged as a result of "grassroot" efforts, common themes emerged in the data. This article will discuss similarities and differences in successful programs as well as provide implications for school counselors. (A detailed description of how each exemplary program is operating including contacts in each school may be obtained from one of the authors).

Group meetings generally occurred on a regular basis during the school day, one time per week for one class period. Students were excused from class on a rotating basis. The heterogeneous groups of ninth to twelfth-grade students met for a period of 8 to 10 weeks. Counselors stated the most common reason for formation of the group was high-risk behavior (suicide, teen pregnancy, family violence, rape, grief and loss, and substance abuse). Eight to ten students formed a group that was closed to new entrants after one or two meetings. Students were selected based on staff or self-referrals and were interviewed prior to the first meeting. Many groups focused on a theme or specific topic so that students who made up the group shared a common concern. However, in some very successful programs, determined by student self-evaluations, students were selected deliberately because they had divergent issues.

Groups were generally co-facilitated by two adults (counselors, teachers, and administrators) who had been trained in group process skills. Parent permission was generally obtained although parent involvement was rare. Staff knowledge and support were crucial to the success of the program and was achieved through dissemination of information about the purpose and benefits of the group, inservices, and administrative support. Referral procedures tended to be similar, although the specifics varied. Most programs received referrals from anyone (students, staff, counselors, administrators) in the school to an intervention-type team who determined the appropriate intervention for a specific student's problems. Although the intervention-team-referral procedure was common to most of the schools, there were some effective programs in which the referral was made directly to the counseling office without other resources intervening. Other intervention possibilities included a referral to individual counseling, special education, a specific class, or a change in class schedule. Funding was often from drug-free money provided by federal or state grants, although many programs did not have specific budgets separate from school budgets.

Although the preceding model was generally adopted in most of the schools interviewed, specific differences in programs emerged in the data. Homogeneous groups dealing with a specific topic such as grief and loss, nontraditional family issues, attendance, drugs, and transitions, were not necessarily the most effective, according to student self-evaluations, because members tended to get too focused on one issue which blocked new information and problem solving skills. Many heterogeneous groups included students who were dealing with quite diverse issues, anything from attendance to death. However, both approaches were implemented. Putting nonattenders into groups was often seen as punishment and, therefore, resulted in decreased effectiveness. Providing group participation as an alternative to other more sever choices was more effective. In comparison to other support groups, alcohol-related groups need more structure and definition due to the type of personalities and family structures of students typically involved in them. Adherence to the structure is especially important and contractual agreements need to be respected such as following the ground rules, arriving on time, and allowing everyone a chance to talk. Students coming out of treatment need continued constant support and students trying to stay straight need to rely on consistent monitoring.

Facilitators and facilitator training varied widely. Some facilitators were teachers, some counselors, some social workers, and some were administrators. Facilitators were trained by Student Assistance Program (SAP) training from various sources. Other facilitators were trained through academic coursework, as part of a masters degree program.

Duration varied with the kind of group. For example, groups for children of alcoholics tended to run longer than the typical 10 to 12 weeks. Other groups related to suspension policies in the school were confined to a set period of 6 to 8 weeks and adhered to that timeframe.

Evaluation techniques varied greatly. Some programs did not evaluate outcome, some used questionnaires measuring positive results such as improved problem solving, improved school performance, and increased ability to communicate and express feelings with family members and peers, while others used data from attendance and retention rates. Programs that did evaluate outcomes using student self-evaluation questionnaires often addressed the following representative questions: "What did you like/dislike about the group?"; "Do you see any changes in yourself, your family, your friends?"; "Has the group made a difference in how you feel about your schoolwork or being in school?" **Examples of student responses are as follows:**

I wanted to run away, but now I want to stay;
My homelife is better;
I want to keep up with schoolwork and my current friendships;
I need to work on my self-destructive feelings;
I want to be more open with my family;
I need to keep believing in myself.

Although evaluation procedures were very brief and informal when they did occur, it is crucial that programs improve evaluation procedures and assess their effectiveness in order to ensure accountability in the future.

DISCUSSION

The lack of a random sample and the relatively low number of respondents is a limitation of the study. However, the study suggests significant implications for school counselors and other school personnel. Support groups for high-risk students are functioning effectively for students whether school counselors facilitate them and are involved in the process or not. The needs of today's students revolve as much around support and family issues as they do around academic issues, postgraduate plans, or college selection. Counselors are responding to the overwhelming demands for their time in some schools by implementing support groups to address students' needs such as drug and alcohol-related issues which require intervention and referral. In schools where counselors do not get involved in the group program, other trained school staff members participate and insure the program's success. Most exemplary programs involve at least one counselor, but many are effective without the counselor being an integral part of the program.

Counselors must assess students' current needs and decide how to adequately address those needs. It may not be the counselor's obligation to meet all the students' needs which have emerged in the last decade, but it may behoove counselors to be more proactive about their counseling roles. Counselors can become "retrained" in group process skills or can take any of the current SAP trainings available to update skills. Many districts provide their own workshops (i.e., Jefferson County; Littleton) and training is also available through counselor organizations such as NOSAPP and the Colorado Association for Counseling and Development (CACD) or the Colorado Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (CACES). Counselors can also gain a deeper understanding of family dynamics to serve the growing numbers of students from dysfunctional families. The need for more efficient use of counselor time due to increasing responsibilities and pressing needs is clear.

Counselor education programs should focus more heavily on training in group facilitation skills thus helping public education address the needs of as many students as possible with the knowledge that one-to-one counseling is, in many cases, a luxury the system and clients cannot afford. According to a brief telephone survey, counselor education programs in Colorado generally require one or two courses in group dynamics, but at the practicum and internship levels, only half of the programs require group facilitation experience. In the other programs, it is encouraged but not required. In addition, some counselor education programs do not require potential school counselors to be trained specifically in family dynamics. Supervised clinical experience in group facilitation is clearly indicated and should be a required component in all counselor education programs.

The cost of support groups can be assimilated into a school budget by redistributing duties using current staff members and expertise. Some schools send staff to special training and pay for the cost out of monies allotted to drug and alcohol prevention. Others establish a separate budget based on their district's focus areas and resources. The purpose of the funds is often to provide affective education in the schools and to support students in order to enhance their success in the school setting. But support groups need not cost a great deal of money. Assessing existing resources is recommended.

Groups may focus mainly on feelings and the processing of those feelings or experiences. Or they may be structured in a way to educate the group members and provide information or skills for the future. Both structures aim at freeing the student from problems which keep them from living happy, healthy, successful lives and moving them toward a more productive school and community life.

With the current awareness of concentration on high-risk youth and prevention/intervention efforts, school-based groups are becoming an increasingly effective prevention strategy designed to meet the escalating needs of today's troubled students.

CONCLUSION

This study examined school support groups which are successfully functioning as an effective intervention/prevention technique in the schools for high-risk students experiencing diverse personal and family problems which interfere with learning. It is recommended that school counselors implement support groups as this method is more efficient and effective in impacting a larger number of students in a shorter period of time than individual counseling. Counselors need to become more proactive concerning their roles and counselor education programs should focus increased training on group process skills as well as family dynamics in order to significantly impact the lives of troubled students.

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BOOK REVIEW

DEVELOPING AND MANAGING YOUR SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

by Norm Gysbers and Patricia Henderson
published by the American Association for Counseling and Development
reviewed by Judith Caligiuri - Ph.D. student

Guidance has changed its focus since its inception into our schools and the shift now is to have comprehensive guidance programs that are developmental and competency based. Short of having Norm Gysbers or Patricia Henderson personally instituting steps in helping a school district organize this sort of program, reading and following the steps in *Developing and Managing Your School Guidance Program* is a good "next best" method.

The book begins with background on how guidance began and the evolution that took place from a vocational focus, through a clinical service approach with an emphasis on personal counseling. In the 1970's, the idea of developmental guidance resurfaced, emphasizing a program for all students rather than crisis and problem solving. With the movement for schools to become accountable for its programs, districts need to look at guidance differently; assess the needs of the students they are serving; determine competencies to be taught; plan and design a program; define the role of the counselor and evaluate the components.

This is a huge task, but following the authors model, one is able to see the parts that make up the whole and how to accomplish small steps, yet keep a cohesive general plan. Luckily, they provide a timetable early on, advising three to four years for the comprehensive program to take hold.

Once a group is organized, ground rules and groups formed, the work begins by identifying the four life career domains--self knowledge and interpersonal skills; life roles, settings and events; life career planning and basic studies and occupational preparation are the ones they use. Goals and specific competencies are developed. There needs to be a structure for the program based on why it's needed, how it fits in relation to the total school program and what it will entail. The authors detour from the traditional three C's (counseling, coordinating and consulting) and introduce a program of guidance curriculum, individual planning, responsive services and system support. It's important to have a clear understanding of these components and to accept their rationale to assure the developmental behaviors to be included. The work the team does will be directed to developing activities and competencies for these areas.

Next, conduct an assessment to determine what already is happening in the current program. Five steps are suggested so that a thorough gathering of data is completed and conclusions drawn. This is usually the first time many staff members see how they impact students, where they're spending their time, and how balanced the program is. The authors were very clear that this isn't a needs assessment but a current assessment of the existing program. The questions to ask now are -- what improvements need to be made? What is the vision for the program?

Work groups take the competencies listed in the present program and develop them into outcomes and specific activities for students. This is done by grade level and reviewed as a total group. They caution teams to keep goals and competencies to a reasonable number because the burden of implementing the program could be overwhelming if the number of competencies is unwieldy. They continue to base all activities to fit one of the four programs previously explained so again, it is important to spend time understanding these and have a philosophy in agreement with the authors.

Once the competencies and goals are written, time and care is needed to plan the transition to the new program. Communication centers around the changes to make, in what order and in what amount of time. Action begins at the building level to determine how the comprehensive district plan fits with the assessment made of each particular building. While all buildings will be following the same general program, specific activities and competencies may differ so this is the portion that allows each building personality and autonomy to serve its unique population.

Once the transition is planned, each building is ready to take the plunge making sure there are enough counselors to serve the students, enough money to effectively carry the programs and administrative support. The authors spend some time describing the necessity of having written guides of specific activities and materials to use to achieve program competencies. This seems a cumbersome, overwhelming task on top of the work that is presently going on so far! They do say this project alone took three years, and while all counselors contributed activity ideas, a small committee did the actual compilation for the guide. While this activity writing is going on (as well as being implemented), buildings must determine priorities for the specific changes they will make based on goal setting for building improvement and some action planning. The program needs to be monitored and a public relations campaign

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BOOK REVIEW

Evolving Theoretical Perspectives on Students

edited by Leila V. Moore
published by Jossey-Bass
reviewed by Marie Oamek

Student development theory has progressed a great deal since the initial development of theories which attempted to explain college student behaviors and motivation. This growth has been a gradual process, similar to the changes in students themselves, but lagging behind much of the time. Long after women and minorities became vital members of the student population, student development theorists and student affairs professionals continued to measure students with yardsticks developed through the measurement of young white men. (Chickering, 1969; Kohlberg, 1971; Perry, 1970.)

Evolving Theoretical Perspectives on Students, Number 51, Fall 1990 in the Jossey-Bass series: "New Directions for Student Services," brings theory up to date in a very helpful format. Early theories have been modified and new models presented, with the common goal of helping professionals understand students today.

The first chapter, "Theory in student affairs: An evolving perspective," is an introduction to theory and the history of student development theory. Other chapters detail specific areas of application, and are written by student affairs professionals from around the nation. They include topics such as gender differences, age differences, sexual orientation, and ethnicity, as well as "Applying cultural theory: The environmental variable," and "Student development: Yesterday, today and tomorrow."

Not only does this design make it easy for the reader to reference specific theories dealing with the special needs of college students, but it helps to identify and value the diverse populations of students in higher education today.

In the first chapter, where general theories of student development are described, I found especially interesting a section called "Chickering revisited." The premise of Chickering's theory, first presented in *Education and Identity* (1969), is that there are seven "vectors" of development through which every young adult must pass. Chickering has ordered the vectors, stating that while some may be worked on simultaneously, the first three (Developing Competence, Managing Emotions and Developing Autonomy) must be achieved before the fourth vector (Establishing Identity) is begun, and identity must be established before the last three (Freeing Interpersonal Relationships, Developing Purpose and Developing Integrity) can begin.

Colleagues and I have struggled with this progression of vectors, as well as with the premises of some of these vectors, especially around the areas of interdependence verses independence (a topic explored in the chapter on gender roles). For example, the third vector, Developing Autonomy, was defined by the student's ability to detach themselves emotionally and instrumentally from parents and peers. This put women at a disadvantage when measured with this scale. In women, the tasks of achieving identity and intimacy have been shown to be fused, not sequential (Gilligan, 1982). Women, for whom intimacy and identity are intertwined, do not need to distance themselves from relationships before achieving vector four, Establishing Identity. In "Chickering revisited," adjustments to his theory which Chickering has made recently are presented. Vector three he now would change to "Developing Interdependence," which encompasses a move away from individualism and toward global awareness and responsibility.

The volume has been kept small and therefore manageable, and extensive reference lists are included at the end of each chapter to assist the reader in obtaining more information about the areas covered.

While this volume would serve as a very comprehensive introduction for persons new to the area of student development theory, it is also a very useful tool for practicing professionals in the ever-changing arena of student affairs.

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SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

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started. People need to know (including the staff) what the new program is about in concise terms. Giving out copies of what the group has done may be impressive in terms of sheer volume, but won't be read item by item, so highlight portions that will give clear direction and the goals to be addressed!

Evaluation, although last in the chain of events, is not the end of the process. Evaluation needs to be ongoing, specific, and reflect the competencies being achieved. The report card format, listing competencies and when they were achieved, was good communication for students and parents in elementary grades. Having a folder for older students where competencies as well as data on education, jobs held, career and academic testing, strengths, weaknesses, etc. was updated each year would give students good information for resumes and an instrument to monitor their own development.

While some counselors may have planned and designed the new program, all will be instrumental in implementing the program. The authors spend time emphasizing the need for competent counselors -- "getting the right people into the right roles", and once they're placed (hopefully that's accomplished through present staff) supervising them and helping them set goals for program and individual performance improvement.

When finishing the book, my first thought was - I hope I never have to do this, but although it's a tremendous amount of work, it's effective; it measures student outcomes in observable behavior and it's a developmental process K-12 that is comprehensive. No more fuzzy ambiguity of the counselors' role. Duties are tied to ensuring the competencies are covered and not quasi-administrative (chaperoning dances, bus duty, etc.) Credibility would be respectable. No more "what do you DO all day?" There would be more infusion in the classroom as teacher and counselor collaborated on activities. The trend for comprehensive programs is intimidating to some counselors. Some have allowed the lack of a definite role to lull them into picking and choosing what they want to do and it has been easy to get caught up in a sea of scheduling tasks, crisis intervention, master schedules and college applications. Working with groups or classes is threatening especially if dialogue has centered on a "what do you want to take next year?" theme.

This book can serve as a model and contains many examples of paperwork needed to go through the process. Sending the guidance program leader and a core team for a workshop or to a district that has implemented this program makes sense. Although its thorough and sequential, handing out copies of *Developing and Managing Your School Guidance Program* and asking people to become familiar with it the first time the group meets, may dampen the most spirited counselor.

SCHOOL SUPPORT GROUPS

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VOLUME 20 SPRING 1992

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FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

As I sit to write my final remarks as Editor, I struggle to be both profound and reflective. As editor I've seen the joy of many who found Awareness to be a place where ideas could find a crowd. I think the variety of topics in this issue speaks well to the broad range of member interests. Over six years, authors have reminded me of the diverse and complex issues brought to counselors. Each article demonstrates how much there is to learn, how much commitment it takes to stay professionally current, and how easy it is to be complacent about topics not fitting one's view.

I thank the many people who contributed to the success of this very good state journal. I especially appreciate Phyllis Beard who handles all the word processing, my colleagues on the editorial board and at Colorado State University, and Barbara and Christopher who went without on many weekends. And I am so pleased to welcome Patti Cappellucci as our new and very skilled Editor.

I could continue to offer accolades but today my mind can't pull away from CNN's latest report that Los Angeles is turning upside down with violence, hatred and mistrust over the Rodney King case. I sit frustrated and discouraged about how little progress we've made since the Watts riots. I'm struck by how much pain I'd hold if I continually found the legal, economic, educational, housing, medical, and political systems unresponsive to me. I think about how tempting crime and illegal activity might be if I couldn't provide for my family. I wonder if I would see the greed of money managers and savings and loan thieves in a different light. I wonder if I'd quit voting as Washington's latest Checkgate, Watergate, or Irangate seem to be more of the same. I wonder if I'd keep motivated, grow cynical about the American Dream, lose faith in a system supposedly designed to work for me not against me. I wonder if I'd grow so frustrated that I'd quit believing that education, hard work, delayed gratification and personal responsibility would help me get ahead.

As I sit in my nice middle class lifestyle with refrigerator full and vacation planned, I wonder what the future is if I don't ask tougher questions about the systems we've built and leaders we elect. While the Journal will continue to challenge counselors about tools, techniques and treatment plans, I wonder if we as counselors speak out enough against injustice, hatred and violence. While our leaders are good at sending troops they seem disinterested in the conditions of cities and children in poverty. As they promote consumption rather than investment policies we bankrupt our education system and offer housing and employment options destined to foster a society of have and have nots. As I close this association with the Journal I am reminded of its title, Awareness. To make a difference in anything I do, I best focus and be aware of the basic rights of all people. As a counselor, editor and friend, I hope that I, this journal, and CACD will continue to promote awareness as we serve others who may not be as fortunate as I.

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THE PRACTICE OF MARRIAGE AND FAMILY COUNSELING

by Robert L. Smith and Patricia Stevens-Smith

Abstract

There is a significant amount of discussion concerning theory in marriage and family counseling and therapy, with the focus on practice being more limited. This article highlights selected techniques used in the practice of marriage and family counseling and therapy.

The practice of marriage and family counseling/therapy[1] has grown at an unprecedented rate over the past two decades. Private practitioners, agency counselors, school counselors, pastoral counselors, counselors in business and industry and other professionals working in a variety of settings regularly see couples and families as a part of their practice. Such professionals work on a day-to-day basis with issues and problems presented by the family unit.

When asked to define the practice of marriage and family counseling/therapy, the most frequent response comes in the form of a statement or comment that includes systems or systems theory language. More scholarly constructed responses to this question cite systems (Bertalanffy, 1981) and include several schools of thought or theorists such as Jackson (1959), Ackerman (1982), Bateson (1972), Bowen (1978), and Minuchin (1974). Most frequently lacking in such discussions is a clear picture of what family counselors/therapists do and how they actually work with couples and families. This article does not claim to fully clarify all vicissitudes related to work with couples and families, but rather attempts to provide the reader with some of the more basic practices used in marriage and family counseling.

TECHNIQUES: OVERVIEW

Techniques are what the counselor or therapist introduces or uses when working with couples or families. Described as tools (Sherman & Fredman, 1986), the efficacy of techniques is determined by their appropriate fit with a presenting problem or dilemma, and by the therapist's personal skills. Techniques have little meaning outside of the therapist's relationship/communication skill level. When core dimensions of counselor functioning are present (Carkhuff, 1969, 1971; Egan, 1986; Ivey, 1988; Brammer, 1973, 1979) techniques can help couples more fully understand presenting problems, develop new relationships between children and parents, reveal true caring among family members, help family systems become aware of patterns and the sequencing of events, and generally create movement and at least a greater understanding during a time when couples and families are stuck or immobilized.

The following techniques are often used by practicing marriage and family counselors and therapists. The techniques are not inclusive, nor are they presented as a "bag of tricks" to be implemented in a cookbook fashion. While a number of techniques could have been selected, the authors chose the following five: reframing, tracking, family rituals, prescribing indecision, and use of metaphors. The rationale for the selection of these techniques is that the authors believe they most clearly present the activities of marriage and family counselors that work systemically with families. Additional practices that could have been included such as communication skill building, role playing and the empty chair have been described elsewhere when referring to the counselor's work with individual clients rather than couples or families. The overall intent is to clarify the practice of marriage and family counseling/therapy and stimulate readers to explore such practices in their work with couples and families.

TECHNIQUES

Reframing, based on the constructivist perception of reality (Coyne, 1985) emphasizes the idea that people create their own reality. A reframe in working with a couple or family is a statement made by the counselor that attempts to change the meaning of a behavior or situation, without changing the actual facts or events. In therapy the counselor will often attempt to reframe something that seems quite hopeless or pessimistic to more hopeful or optimistic. A reframe provides the opportunity for family members to see a presented phenomenon in a new context. Through reframing a new set of rules may be established.

Satir (1983) has viewed the purpose of the reframe as a means to create a shift in the perceptions of family members with respect to the behavior so that it may be handled more constructively. As an example Satir provided the following reframe:

Son - "My dad often yells and has a temper."
Satir - "Your father gets over angry and brings out his thoughts." (Satir, p. 34)

Another example of a reframe relates to a therapist working with a couple who have tried endless responses to

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[1] The terms "counseling" and "therapy" are considered interchangeable in discussions of working with couples and families.

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stop the constant fighting between their two sons. Typical solutions tried by parents are usually of a first order variety using punishment, etc. In such a case the therapist may interject a reframe by describing the fighting as "normal sibling behavior" and further see it as "more loving behavior expressed in the only way that the children know how to express such towards each other."

For reframing to be successful, it must be plausible and acceptable to the clients. It is the counselor's job to present the reframe in a manner that makes sense to the clients. Therefore, the counselor needs to clearly understand the problem along with each individual's perception and role as related to the problem.

While a number of techniques could have been selected, the authors chose the following five: reframing, tracking, family rituals, prescribing indecision, and use of metaphors.

Tracking is a technique used by family therapists despite one's theoretical orientation or background. The purpose of tracking is to gain a clear understanding of patterns of behavior, thought processes, and feelings, as related to the family system. Members of the family are asked in detail to provide the sequence of an event or phenomenon. Minuchin and Fishman (1981) see tracking as a method used by therapists to join with the family system. Tracking involves careful listening to the family story. The therapist does not judge or evaluate during this process. The therapist learns about the family, how it functions, rules it follows and cycles of family practice. The therapist observes the roles played by various family members, who is involved, to what degree, when, how, and under what circumstances.

The behaviors used by the therapist involve listening, clarifying questions, supporting discussion, and encouraging sharing. The therapist does not question or challenge family members. In a systemic manner the therapist might ask questions in the following order: Who is the first to act or do something in a particular situation? Then what happens? Who acts next? Then what does the first person do? What are other family members doing? This process continues with the therapist obtaining a full picture of sequences of events and how self-reinforcing feedback loops are established.

Some additional practices may be utilized in tracking including having family members enact a sequence of events, or asking each member to tell their story about a sequence of events to check each member's perception. The tracking technique encourages specificity as to what happens within the family system, creates a concrete discussion, avoids vague generalizations, and allows for greater insight by family members leading to changing a stuck sequence that has been habitually utilized.

Family Rituals are used after the therapist has an idea about the rules of the family. The prescription of a family ritual is used to change the system and break up the old rules of the family. Sequences of behavior are often interrupted through family ritual prescriptions. Typically, the ritual is created by the counselor without explanation. Yet, emphasis is placed on details involving specific actions by family members, time, sequence, membership participation, environment, etc. The prescription is often written out in detail for family members. The actual ritual, based upon the therapist's knowledge of the family, its interactional system, etc., can range from the very simple to an elaborate level of complexity involving more than one generation.

An example of a fairly simple prescribed ritual centers around parenting. In such cases the therapist might arrange days where each parent is responsible for the discipline and where the other parent is not to interfere. Monday, Wednesday, and Friday might be days directed where the husband is in charge, while Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday would be left to the wife. Such a ritual (Selvini-Palazzoli, Boscolo, Cecehin, & Prata, 1978) can block the usual patterns of interaction in the family. Other examples of prescribed straight forward rituals include: (1) the arrangement of a fixed time for dinner with the rules being that arguing, complaining, and criticizing are not allowed; (2) directing the parents to go out on a date(s) without going into detail as to where they are going, thus adding mystery to the behavior; (3) prescribing a fixed time to discuss a family issue with each individual given fifteen minutes of uninterrupted time, or setting the prescription around how to celebrate family members' birthdays or special events in their lives. Often rituals are directed to the family to add needed structure. Examples might center upon homework, housecleaning, or dinner. Yet in all cases, the prescription of the ritual would be preceded by an understanding of current family functioning and existing patterns.

Prescribing Indecision is a paradoxical technique often used after working with a couple over a period of time. The couple or family may be stuck in indecision. The status of the presenting problem has stayed the same and it doesn't seem as though much activity is about to take place. In such a case the therapist cannot move the clients in a direction of action.

In prescribing indecision, the counselor discusses with the client that she/he has been wrong in trying to push them to move ahead. Instead the thought is expressed that it is too early to make any decisions and they should wait and not rush. To follow this up, the counselor specifically details the terms of staying undecided, therefore creating a therapeutic double bind of either resisting the prescription, or acquiescing.

An example of prescribing indecision in marital counseling (Todd, 1984) involves working with a couple unable to decide on whether to stay with one another or get a divorce. After seeing the couple for a lengthy period of time and unsuccessfully trying nonparadoxical strategies, a prescription of indecision was presented. The couple was asked to delay any decision relating to divorce and to spell out clearly how they wanted to interact. Thus, the couple was placed in a bind where they either lived together and settled their affairs, or rejected the prescription and decided to divorce.

The positive feature of a paradoxical technique is that the counselor does not have to directly confront the family and create conflict. Very often stress levels of couples and families are exacerbated by faulty decision-making. With the prescription of indecision, indecisive behavior is actually reframed as a positive way to look at an issue, to take one's time, and to be sure.

Metaphors are often used by marriage and family counselors/therapists in their work with couples and families. Metaphors are used to stimulate new ways for client systems to communicate and interact. The metaphoric intervention can be helpful in defining or clarifying a presenting issue by providing symbolic ways of dealing with the problem itself.

Prior to the use of metaphors, the therapist should clearly understand the presenting problem. Utilized extensively in strategic therapy (Haley, 1976; Zeig, 1980) metaphors attempt to challenge relationships in a nonthreatening manner. The analogy created by the therapist is not explained to the family as it relates to the original problem.

In the most basic form, a metaphor can be a word that is used to represent an idea followed by an analogy. Satir, for example (Thomas, 1992), would use the word "pot" as a metaphor to represent a family member's self-esteem. A follow-up would be "how full is your pot?", "how does it fill up?", or "how is it emptied?". Bunny Duhl (1983) has used the metaphor of a "toy." As a follow-up, she asks family members to visualize themselves as toys and asks questions about their shape, size, function, noises made. She then proceeds by asking the "toys" to find other "toys" in the family with which to interact.

Metaphoric tasks have been effectively used with couples. In such cases, the therapist speaks in a metaphor that symbolizes the problem presented by the family. Erickson would see this as planting seeds for potential change. An example (Becvar, 1988) is to discuss with a chaotic family how an orchestra might be successfully conducted with two conductors. The added caveat would be discussing how they might work together if they have differences of opinion as to how the orchestra should perform.

Conclusions

An article of this nature is far from complete when considering the list of therapeutic tools available to marriage and family counselors. The reader is encouraged to use the references provided in this article to gain familiarity with a variety of other widely practiced techniques such as: the genogram, sculpting, the family sociogram, role playing, the family council meeting, the empty chair, communication skill building, the use of letters, etc. All such techniques are recommended with a cautionary note of accurately diagnosing the family system and judiciously applying each intervention. By reviewing techniques frequently used in marriage and family counseling/therapy, it is hoped that individuals will not only more accurately relate to that which occurs in practice, but also further appreciate its richness and excitement.

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HATE GROUPS AND RACIAL INTOLERANCE: A STUDENT AFFAIRS CHALLENGE FOR THE 90'S

by Marc Steuben and Keith Miser

Abstract

The pressure of hate groups and racial intolerance on college campuses is emerging as a significant issue for student affairs professionals in the 1990's. This article probes the reasons for this increase in activity and outlines the effects of hate groups on campus communities. Strategies to reduce prejudice are introduced and recommendations for student affairs educators are advanced.

The most common image evoked when discussing hate groups is that of white-hooded klansmen standing around a burning cross. Since this is presently a relatively rare sight, it is tempting to think that such groups no longer exist. In fact, while the image of hate groups has changed and membership has declined during the 80's, the danger presented by such groups is more real than ever.

College students are among the groups of people targeted by hate groups. Appealing to students' bigotry and anger, the message transmitted by hate groups perhaps is not as blatant as "minorities are an inferior, lower type of person." Instead, they use a more subtle approach, appealing to emotions by saying "minorities are getting scholarships, opportunities, and jobs that you have a right to -- you should do something about it" (Wintersmith, 1990). The message is delivered in a sophisticated, more subtle manner than ever before, and therein lies its danger.

The affiliation of college students with elitist, esoteric groups such as hate groups is not without precedent. From the mid 1960's until the early 1980's, colleges and universities saw a high level of activity by political and religious groups, commonly referred to as cults. Such groups have several distinguishing features in common with hate groups (Mansfield, 1990), including close allegiance to an intelligent, charismatic leader; a highly syncretic combination of beliefs, values, and practices; the use of "dread, doom, gloom, evil, insanity, and sinfulness" (Bliming, 1981, p. 3) as motivating factors for members; a strong feeling of "us versus them," which intensifies group identity; and a unique perception of reality, which provides structure for the group's beliefs and action (Mansfield, 1990). Cults relied heavily on the natural curiosity and vulnerability of young people for membership recruitment, with a concentration on white, upper-middle class youths in their late teens and early twenties (Delgado, 1977). Thus, college campuses became the focus of cult activity.

Several writers have postulated explanations for the college student's particular susceptibility to cult influence. Chickering (1972), Coons (1974), King (1973), and Sheehy (1977) acknowledged that conversion to a fundamentalist cult or religious movement is a path some students take to resolve the complexity of becoming an adult (Bliming, 1981).

Although cult activity on college campuses has declined in recent years, the developmental needs of college students probably have not changed. The ability of hate groups to partially meet these needs remains a motivating factor promoting membership. Although education, exposure, and pro-activity by college officials prohibiting solicitation in residence halls and enforcing confidentiality of student information have made students less vulnerable to cult influence, other factors exist which indirectly can help strengthen hate groups. For example, many believe society's generally conservative attitude has led to an atmosphere where the gains of the civil rights movement are questioned. Accordingly, the nature of cults and cult-like groups has changed, and the rallying cry of "Love!" has been replaced by the rallying cry of "Hate!" (Mansfield, 1990). This philosophy of hate is manifested in the allegiance of some college students to hate group ideologies, such as those espoused by the Ku Klux Klan, Neo-Nazi's, or numerous other groups. While the formal membership of such groups has declined in recent years, research shows that incidents of hate group activity on college campuses has increased dramatically. The Anti-Defamation League reported that in 1988 there was a 270 percent increase in incidents on college campuses over 1987 (Klanwatch, 1989). The number of formally organized hate groups in the United States grew from 273 in 1990 to 346 in 1991, a 27 percent increase (Klanwatch, 1992).

Since ethnoviolence and racial tension at least indirectly are associated with hate group attitudes, it is important to understand the nature of hate group advocates and their ideologies. There are striking similarities between cults and hate groups. Like cults, most hate groups have charismatic leaders. These leaders are typically well-educated and possess mature rhetoric skills enabling them to justify their racist views. Hate group beliefs usually are drawn from eclectic views of politics, religion, and philosophy. An intense atmosphere of "us versus them" exists to such an extreme that the feeling is not "white versus Black," or "Christian versus Jew," it is rather, one hate group versus everyone else, including other hate groups. This attitude is a component of all hate groups -- a group's particular view of reality is fundamental in giving both identity and rationale for its actions.

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Tension between hate groups and institutions of higher education is evident and will continue to grow in the future for several reasons. The initial effect of increasing minority populations tends to increase incidents of race-related aggression and the values and goals of most colleges and universities are polar opposites to the goals of hate groups.

The institution must counteract the hate group recruitment and assertively educate students on the value of diversity and the harm of oppression (Wintersmith, 1990).

Campuses provide an arena for discussion valuable to hate groups in promoting their ideologies and rhetoric. Concurrent with the increase in incidents of ethnoviolence on college campuses is an increase in high school incidents. Colleges are an endless source of both potential recruits, due to their large student body of energetic and curious individuals, and potential victims due to the diverse student population.

EFFECTS OF HATE GROUPS ON THE COLLEGE CAMPUS

Hate groups directly or indirectly affect college campuses in several ways. College students who are members of a hate group support the hate group through various activities and recruiting. As members of the campus community, they are particularly threatening because they have easy access both to potential recruits and potential victims who could be impacted or influenced by their ideology (Mansfield, 1990).

The institution must counteract the hate group recruitment and assertively educate students on the value of diversity and the harm of oppression (Wintersmith, 1990). Wintersmith contends that whether a hate group has or recruits student members, the campus environment can be useful to the hate group in achieving its goals. The campus is fertile ground where political discussion and open-mindedness is valued, so it can become a valuable forum for hate groups to promulgate their ideals.

Although many of the perpetrators of racial or ethnic harassment on campuses are not formal members of hate groups (Klanwatch, 1990), many espouse the ideologies of such groups and pattern their behaviors accordingly. Klanwatch and the Anti-Defamation League statistics indicate that hate group symbols such as "KKK," swastikas, and burning crosses are common themes in racist graffiti and vandalism. These activities show how hate groups indirectly can affect the college campus. While the Ku Klux Klan might not have any direct role when a student's door is spray-painted with "KKK," this act demonstrates that Klan ideology, at least in part, has reached that campus (Klanwatch, 1990).

Other students with ideologies similar to hate groups may avoid commitment to an organized group, fearful of potential damage to their future through such affiliation and the negative stigma attached to hate group membership. They also may fear other negative consequence that could be associated with membership (Wintersmith, 1990). Students in this category may not have any feelings of white supremacy but within their First Amendment rights will use Ku Klux Klan or Neo-Nazi symbols to display contempt for issues such as affirmative action (Mansfield, 1990).

The most serious effect of hate groups is on minority students who are the targets of their activities. According to Ragan (1985), "Even in the cases where vandalism is limited to anti-Semetic or racist graffiti, the impact on the victims is often devastating. They may feel anger, terror, a sense of isolation, and abandonment by their neighbors and community" (p. 2).

REASONS FOR THE EXPRESSION OF HATE

Perry (1970) theorized that as students move from a dualistic frame of reference to a multiplistic frame, it often is difficult to draw conclusions about the advantages and disadvantages of various schools of thought. Students looking for a release from the ambiguity that an open exchange of ideas promotes may adopt a hate idealogy delivered with sufficient zeal. Toffler (1971) referred to this ambiguity as "over choice." Students can be attracted to groups with strong ideologies because "the group offers all the answers and absolves the student from having to make choices" (Bliming, 1979, p. 5). Allport (1958) supports the concept of students subscribing to hate group ideologies as a result of "over-choice," because "by taking a negative view of great groups of mankind, we somehow make life simpler" (p. 390).

Another view describes having a concrete set of values, even those of hate groups, as helping students with the task of identity resolution. Erikson (1959), Knefelkamp, Widick, and Parker (1978) stated that during the task of identity resolution "ideological issues take on importance, and the individual hopes to find a set of beliefs which will organize life and the world. In many ways, the individual tries to collect ready-made frameworks which provide self-definition and direction" (p. 6). Erickson (1959) postulates that since adolescents are uncertain about their identity, they can "become remarkably clannish, intolerant, and cruel in their exclusion of others who are 'different', they stereotype themselves, their ideals, and their enemies" (p. 92). In his analysis of Erikson's theory, Crain (1985) states that "some youth align themselves with ideologies -- national, political, or religious -- which can provide them with a group identity and clear-cut images of good and bad in the world" (p. 168).

Another explanation of the expression of hate is that may students do not have a clear understanding of the concepts and goals of diversity and feel the result of decisions made in the name of "diversity" is actually "reverse discrimination." Such students may support the rights of minority individuals, but that support ends when they feel their own rights are in jeopardy. Klanwatch Intelligence Report #48 (1990) states that reasons for the "increased violence include hostility created by increased competition for jobs, resentment of affirmative action and a perception that minorities are receiving preferential treatment" (p. 7).

REDUCING PREJUDICE

As educators, college faculty and administration should understand the various resources and techniques available to address the issue of reducing prejudice. Klanwatch (1989) stated that education is the key to combating racism. Pate (1988) has outlined several approaches based on experimental research in prejudice reduction may be valuable to college administrators. He suggests educational strategies that include using multimedia teaching materials on multiculturalism, cooperative learning approaches, human relations training, attending to a racially positive school climate, and the development of teachers to understand and be able to effectively teach the dynamics and implications of prejudice.

Like Pate, Walsh (1988) sees education as a key to prejudice reduction. Walsh believes the emphasis in education should be the development of critical thinking skills because, as she states, "thinking critically is the antithesis of prejudicial thinking" (p. 280). Walsh outlines several critical points in prejudice reduction, suggesting that children be taught to ask critical questions, to go beyond the superficial, and to take and defend positions on issues. Learners must be aware of multiple perspectives and should understand their personal biases.

From an administrative perspective, Sowell (1989) postulates that admissions standards are a factor in the development of a new version of racial intolerance. Relaxing admissions standards to increase the number of minority students recruited promotes artificial failures of those students and increases racial tension. Sowell's argument does not suggest that the goals of minority recruitment are wrong but that colleges should abandon their focus on "body count" recruitment of minority students.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EDUCATORS

Responding to the organized and individual acts of racial intolerance is a challenge for student affairs professionals. On some campuses the ideology of hate has become a significant attribute in the campus climate and culture, while other institutions, through proactive steps, have remained open to diversity. The following recommendations regarding tolerance may be useful to student affairs leaders:

1. Establish clear, well-written institutional policies related to hate activities. These policies must include statements of response to harassment in any form, group defamation, and hate group requests to use campus space or resources.

2. Disciplinary policy and subsequent actions, within the limits of First Amendment rights, must be defined for racial harassment or ethnoviolence. Sanctions must include educational and critical thinking components focusing on the value of diversity.

3. Recognize not only the existence of different levels of diversity awareness but provide educational activities at each level. This can be accomplished through campus-wide programming designed to celebrate diverse cultures and to value diverse members of the campus community.

4. Make public statements and use public symbols, such as art in the student center, to make it clear that the institution values diverse cultures, races, and life styles represented in the campus community.

5. Institutional leaders should quickly and publicly condemn acts of racial intolerance without creating a martyr image for the hate group. At the same time, the First Amendment guarantees of freedom of expression must protect all members of the campus community.

6. The institution should provide support programs for all students through activities, counseling center, residence halls, and Greek organizations in order to respond to student needs to belong, and to develop leadership skills, feelings of identity, and self worth. This will help prevent students from seeking hate groups to fulfill these needs.

7. The campus should develop a diversity plan involving all members of the campus community. The plan should address the curriculum, recruitment and retention of diverse students and faculty, and initiatives to develop a positive climate for minorities. The plan should include institutional policies and procedures.

8. The institution should create and implement strategies to assist students in developing their critical thinking skills through academic activities, programming, and class activities. Because one of the roles of an institution is to prepare students for good citizenship following graduation, and racial tolerance is critical to this goal, institutions must act to instill an understanding of diversity concepts.

9. The institution must take great measures to guarantee the right of open and free speech for every member of the campus community, yet at the same time, be mindful of the destructive impact of racist speech on all members of the campus community.

Ethnoviolence often is a result of misinformation, ignorance, and lack of empathy towards those who are different. The institution's goal must be to inform, educate, enhance critical thinking skills, and teach the skill of multicultural awareness to students in a manner that will ensure commitment to diversity is self-generated after they leave the campus environment.

(Continued on pg. 24)

CAREER INDECISIVENESS: ASSESSMENT, ANTECEDENTS, POPULATIONS AND COUNSELING OPTIONS

by Roxanne Bank and Andy Helwig

Abstract

This article addresses the issue of indecisiveness as it relates to career life planning. The assessment of indecisiveness, its antecedents, and the likely client populations exhibiting this trait are explored. Counseling approaches successful in dealing with indecisiveness are discussed.

Decision making, like change, is one of the constants in our lives. We make scores of decisions each day--many of them almost simultaneously. Not making a decision is a decision in itself. Effective decision making skills are crucial in life and are especially critical in all stages of career life planning.

As early as 1939, E. G. Williamson identified students possessing "problems of occupational orientation" (p. 403) which consisted of uncertain occupational choice, no vocational choice, discrepancy between interests and aptitudes, and unwise vocational choice. More recent writers refer to career counseling clients as decided, undecided and indecisive and other subtypes (Larson, Heppner, Ham & Dugan, 1988; Vondracek, Hostetler, Schulenberg & Shimizu, 1990). Career counselors are realizing that thorough, accurate assessment and diagnosis (strongly urged by Williamson in the 1930s must precede appropriate, individualized counseling.

The purposes of this paper are to explore some current concepts regarding the assessment of career decisiveness problems and to examine common antecedents to trait indecisiveness. Furthermore, the paper will identify populations for which decision making is problematic, and will offer suggestions for counseling indecisive clients.

ASSESSMENT

Determining appropriate, individualized career counseling requires accurate, thorough assessment and diagnosis of a client's current stage of decidedness and "of (his or her) social, psychological and career status" (Newman, Fuqua & Seaworth, 1989, p. 230). The needs of some clients will be satisfied by traditional vocational counseling; other clients will require personal counseling prior to or in conjunction with career counseling.

Jones (1989) stresses the potential pitfalls to following a unidimensional counseling approach: Clients who are decided may have made inappropriate choices and may not be comfortable with being undecided because the indecision is appropriate to their stage of career development (Jones, 1989). It is important not to assume that decided clients are satisfied or that indecision is inherently problematical.

Clients who are not comfortable with their indecision may fall into two primary categories--those whose indecision is rooted in developmental deficiencies due to a lack of knowledge about themselves and/or about the world of work (referred to as "undecided") and those whose indecision can be conceptualized as a chronic problem (Hartman, 1990) or a long-term personality style (Johnson, 1990) (referred to as "indecisive"). The developmental deficiency is considered a temporary state; the personality deficiency is defined as a chronic trait.

Clients who are comfortable with their undecidedness or whose indecision is developmentally caused can benefit from traditional career counseling, which includes values clarification, interest and abilities assessment, provision of information about career opportunities, and assistance with skill development and decision making. Clients who are not comfortable with established decisions may also benefit from the traditional approach or may require personal counseling to reevaluate their decisions. Chronically indecisive clients challenge the boundaries between personal, integrative counseling and the traditional, vocational approach (Johnson, 1990). A multidimensional assessment may be required to determine the antecedents of the indecisive behaviors so the client can be helped therapeutically before he or she is able to make effective and appropriate career decisions.

How does this assessment occur? In-depth personal interviewing and counseling is an appropriate initial step. All of the counselor's "clinical skills" including intuitive and cognitive are useful. In addition, at least three standardized instruments can be used to identify various components of career indecision.

One of these inventories is the Assessment of Career Decision Making (Prediger, 1988) which measures styles of decision making such as rational, intuitive and dependent. Another instrument is the Career Factors Inventory (Chartrand & Robbins, 1990), which measures career choice anxiety, generalized indecisiveness, need for career information and need for self-knowledge. Finally, the Career Decision Scale "arguably the best known instrument for the assessment of career indecision" (Chartrand & Robbins, 1990, p. 167), measures lack of structure and confidence, perceived external barriers, positive choice conflict, and personal conflict.

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ANTECEDENTS TO INDECISIVENESS

Research suggests a high correlation between chronic indecisiveness and a variety of personality traits and dysfunctional family patterns. When interviewing clients, it is important to look for the following characteristics:

a) **Poor development of healthy self-constructs resulting in an unstable sense of self or poor identity formation (Lopez & Andrews, 1987), poor self-concept and low self-esteem (Robbins, 1987), lack of self-confidence (Larson et al., 1988), negative self-appraisal (Hartman, 1990), and problems in self-perception (Newman et al., 1989);**

b) **Anxiety: Is it specific to the decision making task or has it chronically, persistently interfered with growth over the years? (Hartman, 1990; Newman et al., 1989). Is there reciprocal causality between the anxiety and the indecision? (Newman et al., 1989);**

c) **External locus of control which is characterized by taking on the values, interests and aspirations of those around oneself (Hartman, 1990) and/or projecting blame of "attributing causality to outside sources" (Schumrum & Hartman, 1988);**

d) **Dependency, difficulties with interpersonal relationships (Newman et al., 1989), and an inability to cope effectively with normal environmental stresses (Schumrum & Hartman, 1988);**

e) **Poor problem solving abilities and avoidant problem solving attitudes and behaviors (Larson et al., 1988);**

f) **Family of origin issues such as marital conflict or instability (Lopez & Andrews, 1987), parental dysfunction including addictive behaviors (Hartman, 1990; Lopez & Andrews, 1987), lack of individuation (Johnson, 1990), triangulation and enmeshment, which is differentiated from healthy emotional closeness which can facilitate decisiveness (Kinnier, Brigman & Noble, 1990);**

(g) **A job history involving a succession of unrelated, entry level positions over a number of years of unsatisfactory or demeaning jobs or general underemployment (Schumrum & Hartman, 1988).**

Identifying these potential antecedents of chronic indecisiveness highlights the fact that career counselors may face "the full range of issues encountered in the behavioral sciences" (Newman et al., 1989, p. 222). Such career counseling will be much more than the "three interviews and a cloud of dust" sometimes attributed to the trait-factor approach.

POPULATIONS AND COUNSELING APPROACHES

A number of client populations are at risk for indecisiveness. These populations include clients whose life experiences may foster indecisiveness in career planning such as women, adult children of alcoholics (addicts, in general), physically challenged (disabled) individuals, multipotentialed clients, and young people. Several of the groups share traits in common. Yet, each group experiences a unique set of causal factors which require individualized treatment. Also, many clients will fit into two or more of these categories.

MULTIPOTENTIALED

Multipotentialed adults may remain unidentified as gifted, yet have "the potential for success and satisfaction in a number of occupations" (Super, 1953, p. 187). Their indecisiveness stems from a reluctance to renounce parts of themselves that may never be fulfilled (Pask-McCartney & Salomone, 1988). The more complex their capabilities, the more difficulty they have defining a comfortable sense of self. And they are likely to express interest in unconventional and unrealistic occupations.

Pask-McCartney and Salamone (1988) offer several recommendations for counseling multipotentialed, indecisive clients. As with all clients, establishing a strong helping relationship based on trust is the first and fundamental step. The traditional techniques of values clarification and determining lifestyle preferences can help these clients narrow their choices, since they enjoy multiple interests and abilities. They should be encouraged to expand and explore options, particularly those occupations which offer multiple potentials and require developing or increasingly varied skills as time passes. Pask-McCartney and Salomone (1988) also indicate that multipotentialed clients need help maintaining a balance between fantasy and reality and between freedom and structure.

YOUTH

Yankelovich (1981) believes that young people feel aimless, fretful, anxious, restless, off balance, and lack clearly defined goals. Hart (1990) suggests that one reason young people are experiencing these difficulties is that we are living in "cataclysmic times" which threaten the survival of the human species via the destruction of the planetary ecosystem and the danger of nuclear war. Concerns of this magnitude are unique to the generations born after World War II. Further research of young people is needed to uncover possible changes in their fears as a result of current world-wide economic instability and the recent extraordinary changes in world politics exemplified by the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the decline of communism.

Because "children's abilities to formulate career aspirations evolve through developmental stages that begin as early as the preschool years" (Hart, 1990, p. 44), permitting clients of any age to experience and process their fears about the future and their adaptive abilities will foster hopefulness and empowerment. Also, as adolescents become more involved in career decision making, parents need to take a peripheral role, encourage autonomy, maintain strong boundaries, support vocational exploration, offer encouragement, and indicate clearly that independent action is accepted and expected (Lopez & Andrews, 1987). The resulting sense of support and self-efficacy provide a foundation for psychological health and productive decision making.

PHYSICALLY CHALLENGED

Indecisiveness in physically challenged clients may be rooted in dependency. These clients may not recognize or express individuation from their families.

Issues which will influence the career options and abilities of physically challenged clients include the severity and the age of onset of the disability, the limitations created by specific impairments, and the client's educational background. Attendant to the disability may be a poor self-concept, lack of social/interpersonal skills, and attitudinal barriers. Besides helping the client improve self-esteem and interpersonal skills, Zunker (1990) suggests the counselor provide role models, assist in independent living skills if necessary, and serve in an advocacy role where physical barriers and discrimination by employers exist.

Regarding the potential influence of family issues, it is important to understand the cause of the physical disability and feelings the client may have about the origin and effects of the impairment. The counselor should also examine the impact of the disability on family dynamics and the influence of the response of the family members on the physically challenged person. The manner in which these clients are treated influences their level of dependency. Helping the physically different individual come to terms with the limitations and influences of his or her impairment and any pertinent family issues will facilitate the decision-making process.

ADULT CHILDREN OF ALCOHOLICS

Personality constructs such as trait anxiety, shifting self-perception or identify confusion, and an externalized attributional system (external locus of control) are components of chronic career indecision and are commonly experienced by adult children of alcoholics (Schumrum and Hartman, 1988). These clients first need to be shown that career decision making is connected with all other aspects of their lives--family, friends, values, and lifestyle issues (Schumrum and Hartman, 1988) to help them accept an integrated approach to career counseling. They need to better understand the influences of their life experiences and family dynamics on their psychological health and decision-making abilities.

Adult children of alcoholics (and addicts) are more likely than others to have experienced physical and emotional abuse or neglect, traumatic life events, financial difficulties, and family illness or violence (Schumrum and Hartman, 1988). Raised in unpredictable, conflictual, anxiety-ridden homes, they have difficulty developing a stable sense of self or knowing what is real or normal. Counselors can help these clients reduce trait anxiety by teaching them relaxation and guided imagery techniques and through cognitive restructuring of irrational thinking. Adult children of alcoholics also need help in separating their true self from their false self or from the family role they may have adopted, which is not a real identity. This is "more difficult for women than for men because of the strong socialization women receive to enhance connectedness at the expense of separation and individuation" (Schumrum and Hartman, 1988, p. 889). By developing a stable base of values and a cohesive sense of self, improving self-esteem, establishing and staying aware of their own clear boundaries, becoming more self-reliant, and dealing with feelings such as guilt about doing for themselves, adult children of alcoholics can individuate from their families and create their own identities. They can learn how to maintain connection without sacrificing themselves (Schumrum & Hartman, 1988).

Career counselors need to be aware of their own biases and stereotypical assumptions and expectations of women (Helwig, 1976).

Clients who have learned to deny obvious problems, keep family secrets, protect the family image, suppress bad feelings, and avoid confrontations need their thoughts and feelings validated and affirmed so they can learn to trust themselves. They need help learning to express emotions, especially negative feelings like anger or rebellion, in self-affirming ways. Self-assertion needs to be taught and supported. Counselors also can reinforce self-efficacy and an internal locus of control by encouraging clients to accept appropriate responsibility without guilt, not to project blame, to contradict learned helplessness, and to improve relationship and stress management skills. By overcoming trait anxiety and establishing a cohesive identity and an internal locus of control, adult children of alcoholics can prepare for a career decision-making process that is self-enhancing (Schumrum & Hartman, 1988).

WOMEN

Not unlike adult children of alcoholics, women tend to be raised to be overly dependent. From birth, females are socialized differently than males. They are taught to base their self-esteem on the reactions of others and to rely on others for approval, acceptance, guidance, and decision making. A lack of faith in one's own judgment and abilities gets instilled (Davis, 1983). Women are taught that characteristics traditionally considered male are judged to be more psychologically healthy and more desirable in the world of work. Individuation and separation from family are discouraged, and dependency on family and then on a husband are encouraged (Foxley, 1979). Stepping out of prescribed sex roles is met with social disapproval and discrimination. This conditioning fosters self-doubt, low self-esteem, dependence, an unstable sense of self, and an external locus of control, all of which are highly correlated to career indecisiveness (Newman et al., 1989).

As a result, the first decision-making dilemma for many women is whether or not to seek employment (Wolleat, 1989). A married woman may find that her husband's attitude and behavior overtly or covertly deter her from deciding to work (Nielsen, 1978). Couples may lack tools for joint decision making, and competition may exist between spouses (Bolles, 1981). Whether or not a woman "has to" work outside the home, employment creates role conflict and can double a woman's workload. Women may experience varying degrees of dissonance and guilt about working outside the home, especially if they have children. Such feelings can foster indecisiveness about pursuing a career and about which career to pursue (Zunker, 1990).

Initial goals when counseling indecisive women may include providing encouragement, and helping the client develop a new definition of self with an awareness of sex role socialization and its detriments and an awareness of personal rights. Women may also need to assimilate the concept that self-nurturing and satisfaction of one's own personal needs, desires and goals is not selfish but worthwhile. They may also need help learning to communicate openly and honestly with appropriate expression of feelings, especially negative ones (Davis, 1983). Responsibility for one's own emotional intellectual, sexual, financial, spiritual, and physical well being needs to be assumed by the client.

Davis (1983) emphasizes the importance of helping women clarify their career goals within a realistic framework. Advantages and disadvantages of specific jobs and potential discrimination problems should be discussed frankly (Foxley, 1979). Preferred life style needs, priorities, and consequences should be analyzed for compatibility with the goals of significant others (Foxley, 1979). Marital counseling may facilitate adjustment to new patterns of behavior. By asking female clients, "If you were a male, what other career options would you have?", the counselor can help the client break out of sex role stereotyping (Foxley, 1979). Participating in or observing other women in nontraditional roles can also expand a client's awareness.

In addition, the counselor should help the client focus on immediate, real circumstances, maintain a task oriented approach, and experience a series of small, self-esteem building successes. Women need practice in making conscious, overt decisions in reaching their own con-clusions. Assertiveness training, canvassing a complete range of possibilities, exploring dreams and fantasies, role playing, and skill building are other techniques which can help women clients expand their career options.

Career counselors need to be aware of their own biases and stereotypical assumptions and expectations of women (Helwig, 1976). Davis (1983) suggests that psychological androgyny is more beneficial than traditional sex role specialization. Providing information on nontraditional career opportunities, valuing "feminine" character traits and reinforcing a balance of "masculine" character traits will expand a woman's career options and reinforce her ability to succeed in any occupation.

CONCLUSION

Decision making is an inherent goal of career life planning. It is important for the career counselor to initially assess whether the client is undecided or indecisive. A number of antecedents are associated with the indecisiveness trait, and the populations of multipotentialed, youth, physically challenged, adult children of alcoholics, and women have been shown to include a high incidence of indecisiveness. Many counseling approaches and treatment options including marriage and family counseling may be successfully generalized among the identified populations to alleviate indecisiveness.

Career counseling may be far ranging as it addresses various needs of indecisive clients. It will be important for individual career counselors to recognize their own skills and limitations and to make appropriate referrals whenever necessary.

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FEMINIST FAMILY THERAPY: A CROSS-CULTURAL CRITIQUE

by LuAnn Costa

Feminist scholars have noted the relatively insignificant impact of feminism on the field of family therapy.

> *Feminism has had a profound effect on contemporary culture and on thinking in most academic fields, including psychoanalysis. Interestingly, until very recently it had made virtually no impact on the theory and practice of family therapy (Goldner, 1985a, p.31).*

In spite of the presentation of family therapy as scientific, value free, systems oriented, and related to the larger social context, the theory and practice of family therapy has a long way to go toward the fulfillment of these objectives (Penfold, 1989). Feminist therapists and counselors are faced with overwhelming conflict (Avis, 1985) when choosing to enter a field that strongly adheres to the fantasy of the isolated nuclear family and male ideas as standards of mental health, refuses to acknowledge the sexual asymmetry of our society, and reflects and reinforces cultural stereotypes of male and female behavior (Penfold, 1989). It is, however, essential that marriage and family therapists not abandon the powerful and dynamic therapeutic modality of family therapy.

Just as the multi-cultural critique of the counseling profession exposed the previously unacknowledged discrimination against the culturally different which pervades the current theory and practice of the helping professions, the feminist critique is essential to the field of family therapy. Indeed, the feminist critique of family therapy has a great deal in common with the cross-cultural critique of the counseling profession:

> *For too long we have deceived ourselves into believing that the practice of counseling and the data base which underlie the profession are morally, ethically, and politically neutral. The results have been (a) subjugation of the culturally different [women], (b) perpetuation of the view that minorities [women] are inherently pathological, (c) perpetuation of racist [sexist] practices in counseling, and (d) provision of an excuse to the profession for not taking social action to rectify inequities in the system (Sue, 1981 p. 19).*

Indeed, family therapy, rather than being neutral, is an inherently political process (Avis, 1985; MacKinnon & Miller, 1987). In deciding how the problem is conceptualized, how it will be treated, and ultimately, how power is distributed, the therapist's beliefs and values are an intrinsic part of the therapeutic process influencing both the client and the outcome. Choices about when to remain silent, when to intervene, and when to ask certain questions are not neutral. Interviewing methodology can reflect a class and gender bias.

A major way in which political influence is exercised in family therapy is through omission or default (Avis, 1985). The therapist must actively respond to values and oppressive conditions by challenging, reinforcing, or passively accepting them. The latter approach including the stance of avoiding taking a stance constitutes tacit approval and condones the status quo isomorphically reflecting oppression in the larger social system. Unconditional respect for the family as well as failure to challenge the status quo may result in collusion with an oppressive institution in which women and children frequently experience physical violence and sexual abuse. In short, therapeutic neutrality is a myth.

The illumination of the domination and oppression by the majority as something other than the natural order of things can only come from the experience of being a member of a disenfranchised minority group (Penfold, 1989). Thus, the feminist critique is essential to the field of family therapy if it is to discover and halt its own oppression and subjugation of women as well as the suppression of men, and the same eventual straitjacketing of their sons and daughters.

FAMILY THEORY AND HISTORICAL/CROSS CULTURAL REALITY

What then is the critique of family therapy from a feminist perspective? "A feminist analysis, laying bare the social and cultural roots of women's oppression, has focused on the institution of the family from both a historical and cross-cultural perspective" (Penfold, 1989, p. 311). A historical perspective reveals the family to be very much shaped by underlying political and economic forces and influenced by larger social institutions, and not the self-contained unit immune to outside forces as presumed by current family therapy theories and techniques (Goldner, 1985a). A cross-cultural perspective reveals as a myth the idealized family as sanctuary from the outside world, presided over by homemaker mothers, frequented by breadwinner fathers, and inhabited by housebound children (Penfold, 1989). In addition to nuclear families, family

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therapists today must be prepared to deal with an increasing variety of family styles including single-parent families, stepfamilies, co-habitating heterosexual couples, gay male and lesbian couples, dual-career families (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1990) as well as families of diverse ethnic origin.

And yet, the fantasy of the isolated nuclear family of Western society, organized around the gender-based allocation of instrumental and expressive roles, beset with intense relationships, and pervaded by massive expectations is viewed as "normal," and necessary to mental health (Penfold, 1989). Systems outside the family such as school, work place, neighborhood, peer group, class, race and sex or influences of death, disease, stress, unemployment, poverty, discrimination, education level, and housing are rarely addressed in family therapy (Goldner, 1985a).

Instead, each pattern of behavior is treated as if it is a problem of the individual family system. Once the conclusion is drawn that the presenting problem is a family problem, the male standard of mental health is used in diagnosis and treatment, putting wives, mothers, and daughters at a severe disadvantage.

MALE IDEAS AS STANDARDS OF MENTAL HEALTH

An overwhelming majority of family therapists are male with few exceptions such as Satir, Palazzoli and Madanes (Penfold, 1989). Murray Bowen, a key figure in the development of family therapy and whose theories are a major force in family therapy today, bases his premises on blatant sexual stereotypes. He depicts a mentally healthy individual as one whose intellectual functioning remains dominant and who can take action independent of the emotionality around them. Conversely, an individual with a low degree of mental health is one whose intellect and emotions are so fused that their lives are dominated by the feelings of those around them and are consequently easily stressed into dysfunction (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1991).

Clearly, the line that divides the healthy from the unhealthy is drawn between men and women and is certainly not unique to Bowen's views or to family therapy. His views echo the results of a study conducted twenty years ago in which male and female clinicians were asked by researchers to describe a mature, healthy, socially competent man, woman, and adult. The consensus was that a healthy man was aggressive, independent, not easily influenced, active, logical, adventurous, and able to separate feelings from ideas. A healthy woman was described as submissive, dependent, easily influenced, passive, illogical, not adventurous and unable to separate feelings from ideas (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, & Vogel, 1970).

Thus, a woman who functions according to the norms of this society is diagnosed in pathological terms by family therapists as "enmeshed," "undifferentiated," "overinvolved," "fused," "dysfunctional," and "triangulating." The double-bind which this definition of mental health places women into is catastrophic:

> *To be a healthy woman by society's standards is to be a sick adult. On the other hand, for a woman to aspire to a societal definition of adulthood is to do so at the cost of her womanhood (Heriot, 1988, p. 12.)*

There is no place for such a double bind in a field which has its roots in the study of such conflicting messages and their impact on an individual's mental health and level of functioning.

Outdated sex role stereotypes and male standards of mental health are evident in some theories of family therapy. Conversely, political and economic inequality between the sexes is virtually ignored.

IGNORED SEXUAL ASYMMETRY AND INEQUALITY

The dominant-subordinate relationship between men and women is virtually ignored by family therapy theorists and therapists, the assumption being that no member is believed to have a unidirectional or greater influence than any other member. Power issues, if addressed, are viewed as inappropriate boundary issues between parents and children, or highlighted in terms of the power of weakness (blaming the victim) rather than the abuse of power (Penfold, 1989). In fact, the tendency to blame mothers and idealize fathers in family therapy theory which holds women primarily responsible for child rearing and, therefore, causing family problems is well documented in the literature (Avis, 1986; Boss & Thorne, 1989; Goodrich, Rampage, Ellman & Halstead, 1988). Mother blaming, in addition, is prevalent in the major clinical journals of several different disciplines (Avis, 1986). Moreover, family systems theory, by virtue of its nonblaming stance, minimizes violence and ironically blames women for the violence perpetrated against them due to their low self-esteem and "masochistic" personality tendencies. On the contrary, family violence researchers (Hotaling & Sugarman, 1986) strongly assert that there is no empirical support that women with particular personality characteristics contribute to their own victimization.

Today's reality is that there are significant differences between men and women in power, status, resource, money, and opportunity. As Goldner (1985a) points out, there is no better illustration of this than the alarming dimensions of the downward spiral in the standard of living after divorce for women--especially for mothers retaining custody--called "the feminization of poverty." The National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity predicts that "if the proportion of poor in female householder families were to continue to increase at the same rate . . . the poverty population would be composed solely of women and children before the year 2000" (Ehrenreich, 1983, p. 11).

The social facts of life are that women are responsible for families and that the consequences of a divorce will be much harsher for women than for men. Women are twice as likely to be the initiators when it comes to seeking out the help of a family therapist, due to their greater emotional involvement and awareness of difficulties and to their greater dependence on the family unit for their own economic survival (Bograd, 1986). Thus, women are, by socialization and by necessity, more willing than their male counterparts to make the concessions required to keep the marriage intact. Whether or not these concessions are healthy and will contribute to her development as a human being as well as to the higher level of family functioning is a matter which too often gets swept under the rug of sexual demographics.

Thus, women are, by socialization and by necessity, more willing than their male counterparts to make the concessions required to keep the marriage intact.

Here again, women are faced with a double jeopardy not unlike the classic double bind "from which there is no exit and within which there is no way to win" (Goldner, 1985a, p. 41). These issues of social inequality are germane to family functioning. Goldner contends that men and women belong to two distinct social and cultural groups due to their extremely different relationships in the work place and in the home. She states, "Men and women enter relationships on such different terms, that intimacy between the sexes is presumed to be inherently problematic and disturbed" (Goldner, 1985b, p. 20). Clearly, recognition of these differences is essential if family therapy is to avoid exploiting the inferior social position of women and sacrificing their needs to the preservation of the family system and the social status quo.

REFLECTION AND REINFORCEMENT OF CULTURAL STEREOTYPES

Family therapists interested in a wholistic approach will want to become sensitized to the devaluation of women's traditional roles and aware of other alternatives. In this culture, women are expected to be submissive, nurturing, hardworking, selfless, self-sacrificing and intuitive and to perform the traditional role of organizing the household, mediating between family members, doing all the household chores, cooking, care and training of children, all of which are severely undervalued tasks. Fathers, it is assumed, should be independent, forceful, self-reliant, objective and rational, spending most of their time in the work place, yet occupying a position of senior authority over the entire family and household. Persons and families who deviate from these standards are deemed pathological (Penfold, 1985).

Family therapists should acknowledge that families have never fit this mold. Here again, the cross-cultural critique of counseling and the feminist critique of family therapy converge, acknowledging the domination of the white male definition of family (Sue, 1981).

Today's families include single-parent families, step families, recombined families, gay-parent families, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and American Indian families. Family theorists and therapists must continue to seriously reexamine and update obsolete and narrow views of what constitutes a "normal" family and "healthy" family functioning. Otherwise, many groups of people and types of family structure will be labeled as deviant and pathological. Inadequate attention has been paid to changes in family structure over the last years. And yet, watered-down versions of the common formulation of "overinvolved mother, peripheral father and symptomatic child are a cornerstone of family therapy today" (Penfold, 1989, p. 313).

Attempts to restore the family to healthy functioning often unwittingly include reinforcing traditional sex roles. Minuchin advances the "put the pants back on father technique" when he describes how he models "male executive functions," using competition and rule setting and demanding that the father take over leadership and resume control of the family (Penfold, 1989).

This kind of observance of traditional sex roles diminishes the possibilities families have of developing healthy, mutually supportive and rewarding relationships and highly differentiated, open and well-functioning family systems. If, for example, a couple adheres to these roles what chance do they have of developing a mutually gratifying sexual relationship when traditional sex roles dictate that men be aggressive initiators and women be retiring recipients who are interested only in fulfilling their partner's needs (Penfold, 1989).

Similarly, the reinforcement of this rigid model of male domination of the family severely limits the opportunities of daughters and sons to explore and value the positive and negative personality traits and behaviors traditionally categorized as being "masculine" and feminine." And, as previously discussed, traditional sex roles dictate that women choose between becoming effective adults and acceptable women, splitting themselves into mutually exclusive halves, one of which must be denied to survive the double bind born of traditional sex roles (Heriot, 1983).

If family therapy is to fulfill its promise as a dynamic and powerful therapeutic modality, it must recognize the negative effects of the traditional sex roles it promotes on emotional growth, sexuality and mutually fulfilling male/female relationships. Family therapists must become aware of and further develop alternatives to simply reflecting and reinforcing the sex roles that devalue wives, mothers and daughters--half of the population they serve.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FAMILY THERAPY TRAINING

Trainees who pursue marriage and family therapy must be exposed to the cross-cultural and feminist critique of the field's blatant sexual and cultural discrimination. As previously mentioned in regard to the politics of family therapy, therapeutic neutrality is a myth. If potential family therapists and counselors--male and female alike--are not alerted to the ways in which existing theories in family therapy ignore the influence of social institutions outside the family system, perpetuate power inequalities between men and women and reinforce oppressive traditional sex roles, how will they be equipped to move beyond them? Without exposure to non-traditional family structures, how will they cope when counseling gay parents and children, single-parent families and cross-cultural families?

Specifically, feminist alternatives in family therapy training programs have been suggested (Avis, 1986; Avis, 1989; Storm, 1991). Gender issues and feminist theory must be integrated into family therapy curriculums. Additional suggestions include using teaching methods such as readings in current research and theory about women; conducting open, nondefensive small group and class discussions to process personal feelings and reactions; creating a safe milieu for disagreement and constructive dialogue; raising gender and power issues in class discussions and case supervision. Examining interpersonal processes with trainees in a gentle nonblaming, and supportive fashion; modeling self-disclosure by instructors and supervisors about one's own beliefs, learnings, and mistakes; using journal writing, genogram analyses, annotated bibliographies, and media; employing collaborative supervision teams to empower trainees; modeling expert and nurturing roles and utilizing gender questions and gender mantras are additional aids (Avis, 1986; Avis, 1989; Roberts, 1991; Sheinberg & Penn, 1991). Intervention skills such as encouraging assertive behavior, supporting single mothers' parenting skills, negotiating a more balanced distribution of parenting and domestic tasks, and validating emotional expression for both men and women can be taught.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, viewing the family system through a historical lens, feminists point out that notions of the nuclear family as a self-contained unit, unaffected by political and economic forces, have no foundation in reality. Furthermore, traditional notions of what a "normal" family is and upon which theories of family intervention have been built are idealized fantasies, as the cross-cultural perspective reveals. Outdated sex role stereotypes and male standards of mental health are evident in some theories of family therapy. Conversely, political and economic inequality between the sexes is virtually ignored. Today's reality of single-parent household (headed largely by women) demands that family therapists take these realities into account and develop alternatives to traditional sex roles in family functioning.

Without awareness of these issues, family therapists may unintentionally contribute to harming, rather than healing, families who are trapped in limited, dysfunctional and destructive behavior based on our society's oppression of women, blindness of nontraditional family forms, and reinforcement of traditional sex roles. Clearly, the feminist critique of family therapy theories and techniques makes a tremendous contribution to the field of family therapy and it is a critical component of its continuing development, refinement and application.

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WHY THE DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH TO GUIDANCE WORKS IN RURAL COLORADO

by Don Crow, Karen Mayo, and Mark Martin

Abstract

In a developmental guidance program, students increase their knowledge of self; learn to relate effectively with others; broaden their understanding of the world; develop decision-making skills; gain knowledge and assistance in career exploration; and make progress toward their educational goals. This program is being implemented in RJ-2 School District.

What is the role of school counselors in rural Colorado? Are we the victim of what Brent Jacobsen from T. H. Pickens Technical Center, paraphrasing Norm Gysbers of the University of Missouri, calls the "sloping desk syndrome" -- every task that no one else wants or knows how to do goes to the counselor because "the only thing we have to do is talk with kids."

The counselors at RJ-2, which includes the schools of Wray and Idalia, have begun using a new team approach to guiding students to excellence through the use of a comprehensive developmental curriculum. This approach starts in kindergarten and is carried through the twelfth grade. In the past, the counselor has waited to act until a crisis has occurred. With the developmental approach, the students are provided with skills to cope with problems as they arise.

A major component of the developmental approach at the elementary level is for the counselor to present a guidance lesson every other week for thirty minutes throughout the entire year. One of the benefits is that the counselor is seen as being visible within the building, which helps remove some of the negative stigma that may be associated with guidance counseling. Also, the counselor then is seen as a teacher as well as an adult friend within the school. Lessons covered in this curriculum range from goal-setting to friendship-making skills. Refusal skills are taught so that kids can learn to say "no" to drugs and alcohol and other peer pressures they may encounter, while still keeping their friends.

A district wide counseling advisory committee, composed of parents, teachers, administrators, child welfare specialist, and students has been established to help develop the program. As a guideline, information was drawn from various states which have already set up a developmental approach. Major sources were Gysbers and Henderson's book Developing and Managing Your School Guidance Program (1988), Comprehensive Guidance Programs That Work (1990) by Gysbers, the National Career Development Guidelines (1989), and the 1990 CSCA/CCDA/Colorado State University Professional Development Workshop materials. Needs specific to our own school district were also identified. The advisory committee membership is representative of each grade level. The committee's main function is to maintain a formal communication link between the various groups being served by the guidance program.

This is a program which is for all of the students -- not just those who are in crisis or who are referred by the teacher because they are "at risk." It is a preventive and proactive program designed to help students acquire competencies to meet the expectations of all their life roles, including educational, vocational, personal, and social. All students will be developing their decision making skills, while increasing their knowledge of self and others. In our changing world, it is important that students have knowledge to help broaden their horizons and to assist them in career exploration and development.

In Middle School, along with individual counseling and lessons presented to the 5th and 6th grade classrooms, special interest groups have been established. These include: Dealing with Death and Dying, Dealing with Parents, Stress, Peer Pressure, Building Self Confidence, Dealing with Drugs and Alcohol, and Understanding the Opposite Sex. Every student in middle school is involved in one way or another with the developmental approach to guidance.

The High School students meet once a week in a session called Prime Time, a form of teacher advisement, which is based on a person-to-person orientation rather than a teacher-to-student orientation. In these Prime Time sessions, students explore goal setting, decision making, career development, and academic advisement. This builds a better relationship between teacher and student. There also exists a High School Peer Counseling program, which has proven quite successful. The peer counselors receive 35 hours of training and close supervision while they are helping their fellow students. They also present programs to the Middle and Elementary Schools in which they teach refusal skills.

For years the term "counseling" has had a negative stigma attached. Through the advisory committee, it is our intent that parents and lay persons can serve as public relations agents. So many people -- especially in rural America -- think, "my child doesn't need counseling, we can

(Continued on pg. 24)

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GENDER ISSUES IN TRAINING: IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELOR TRAINING PROGRAMS

by Patricia Stevens-Smith

The importance of counselors/therapists being aware of gender issues has been documented (Avis, 1986; Goldner, 1985; Hare-Mustin, 1978; Margolin, Fernandez, Talovic, & Onorato, 1983; Walters, Papp, Carter, & Goldstein, 1991), as has been the shift in male and female roles in society and the changing structure of the American family over the past 40 years (Degler, 1980; Hewlett, 1986; Kimmel & Messner, 1989). Yet, few counselor education training programs systematically incorporate gender issues into their courses and fewer have specific courses listed as such in their curriculum.

It is necessary to examine both family systems theory and the feminist prospective in order to understand the necessity of addressing gender issues within the graduate program. This article presents an argument for incorporating gender into the curriculum and suggests methods for integration.

SYSTEMS-BASED FAMILY THEORY

Systems-based theories are advocated as an effective framework for facilitating change and growth within the family. Inherent in this model is that human problems are defined within family interactions and their developmental history. Therefore, change in the family system creates change in the individual and/or change in the individual changes the family system. Accordingly, systems are "self-regulating and self-maintaining" with members contributing equally to the system's maintenance through the concept of circular causality. Power to initiate change is seen as equal for all family members: male, female, adult or child. Appropriate hierarchial structure and boundaries are considered integral concepts in the maintenance of family health. Families are often evaluated and counseled with only slight regard for the outside social and political structures that affect the family (Smith, 1991).

FEMINIST FAMILY THERAPY

Feminist family therapy is not a theory of family therapy but rather a unique philosophical approach to working with existing theories of family therapy. Techniques from other theories are recognized and utilized in the practice of feminist family therapy. Feminist family therapy is different from traditional systems theory since it recognizes the effects that social and political influences have had throughout history on the roles taken by men and women within the family (Walters, Papp, Carter, & Goldstein, 1991).

GENDER INEQUALITY

Gender inequality, along with society's preservation of this inequality, is the missing concept in systems-based family theory (Avis, 1989; Hare-Mustin, 1978; Walters, et al., 1991). With the integration of a feminist perspective, the systems-based family framework of therapy becomes a more complete structure for working with today's families. Integrating feminist perspective into family therapy theory means acknowledging the effect of society on the family in regard to work, reproduction, and societally ascribed gender roles. It also means accepting the fact that power is not equal within the family. The counselor must then be able to develop an effective strategy based upon the affect of these facts on the client/family.

THE CHANGING AMERICAN FAMILY

One cannot adequately address today's family system without addressing the societal changes both in gender roles and in the family structure (Smith & Stevens, 1992). Less than 27% of today's families are "traditional" two-parent families (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1988). The increasing number of single parent female-headed households, remarriage creating step or blended families, same-sex households, and childless dual-career couples are only a few of the families in today's society (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1990).

Despite these many changes in women's roles and the family system, family therapists continue to see the family as the "traditional nuclear system" and deny the continued struggle of women living in a patriarchal society. At the same time not enough attention is given to inequities that exist in the workplace and in the division of labor within the home or to the "feminization of poverty" which is often a result of divorce for women (Faludi, 1991; Hewlett, 1986; Hochschild, 1989). Holding to traditional pejorative beliefs about the family further denies the reality of today's family.

To effectively prepare counselors/therapists for working with families, it is necessary that they have an understanding of the effect of society on both gender roles and the family. Counselor trainees, in addition, must also be aware of their own biases and prejudices regarding gender issues.

INTEGRATING GENDER ISSUES IN TRAINING

Integrating gender into counselor training involves developing an awareness of how gender affects all aspects of an individual's life - personal, professional, economic, and political. For example, counselor trainees need a greater awareness of the economic consequences of divorce; the different effect on men and women of battering, sexual

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violence, and incest; as well as an awareness of the daily differences in male and female world views.

Avis (1989) states two assumptions are inherent within an integrated training curriculum. The first and major assumption is that we are all sexist. This assumption is supported by Schaef (1985) who states that we cannot grow up in this culture without being both sexist and racist.

Avis' second assumption is that the inclusion of gender awareness into the curriculum is an ethical issue. It is not ethical to deny that prejudice exists. To admit its existence and increase one's awareness of how these prejudices are integrated into personal and professional lives, is the ethical solution.

STEPS TOWARD INTEGRATION

In order to facilitate an awareness by counselor trainees, counselor educators must themselves be aware. Counselor educators should address their own misunderstandings of feminism, examine their own gender biases, and share their experiences and learning both with peers and students. Given the political nature of gender awareness and the emotional intensity connected with challenging these roles, there could be a prevailing resistance to the incorporation of these issues within the curriculum. Avis (1989) suggests asking colleagues to read and discuss gender issues. She states that it may be necessary to be patient, persuasive, and persistent with one's peers.

After colleagues increase their own awareness of gender issues, the curriculum can be modified in two ways (Avis, 1989). The first is through an introduction of gender awareness into existing courses. Many courses within a typical counselor training curriculum lend themselves well to the integration of gender issues. Counseling foundation courses and basic techniques courses in individual and family counseling/therapy have components relating to building the counseling relationship as well as addressing one's own biases in working with different populations. Discussing gender issues within this context is both desirable and practical for training. The career development course is an ideal setting to examine women and men's changing roles in the workplace. Multicultural classes naturally lend themselves to the discussion of changing lifestyles for men and women. A course in professional/ethical issues would be incomplete without addressing ethical implications of counselor biases. Human development coursework and gender issues also integrate easily.

The second method of integration is to develop a course in gender awareness. Although this course could be taught as an elective within the curriculum or as a workshop, its importance calls for it to be a required curricular experience (Figure 1).

A combination of a required course and an integration within existing courses would be of maximum benefit to the students. This allows both an intensive study of the issues and an integration into other aspects of counseling.

GENDER COURSE SAMPLE OUTLINE

COMPONENT ONE
GENDER, RACE, ETHNICITY, AND SOCIAL CLASS

Focus: Self-examination, reflection, reaction, and awareness

Suggested selected readings:

Bernard, J. (1990). The good provider roles; Its rise and fall. In Michael S. Kimmel and Michael A. Messner (Eds.), *Men's lives* (223-240). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Chodorow, N. (1978). *The reproduction of mothering: Psychoanalysis and the sociology of gender.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Davenport, P. S., & Yurich, J. M. (1991). Multicultural gender issues, *Journal of Counseling and Development, 70,* 64-71.

Degler, C. N. (1980). *At Odds.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Hood, E. (1984). Black women, white women: Separate paths to liberation. In Jagger and Rothenberg (Eds.), *Feminist frameworks* (189-202). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Rotundo, E. A. (1985). American fatherhood. *American Behavioral Scientist, 29*(1), 7-23.

COMPONENT TWO
WOMEN'S PSYCHOLOGY AND THINKING

Focus: Equality, differences, similarities, stereotypes; moral development, affiliation and caring; epistemological development

Suggested Selected Readings:

Belensky, M. F., Clenchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986). *Women's way of knowing.* Glenview: Basic Books.

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Schaef, A. W. (1985). *Women's reality: An emerging female system in a white male society.* San Francisco: Harper and Row.

COMPONENT THREE
IMPLICATIONS AND APPLICATIONS

Focus: Counseling theory and practice; professional integration

Suggested Selected Readings:

Hare-Mustin, R. (1978). A feminist approach to family therapy. *Family Process, 17,* 181-194.

Hare-Mustin, R. (1988). Family change and gender differences: Implications for theory and practice. *Family Relations,* 36-47.

McNamara, K., & Pichard, K. (1989). Feminist identity development: Implications for feminist therapy for women. *Journal of Counseling and Development,* 184-189.

Pittman, F. (1985). Gender myths. *The Family Therapy Networker, 9*(6), 24-33.

Walters, M. A., Papp, P., Carter, B., & Goldstein, O. (1991). *The Invisible Web.* New York: Guildford Press.

COMPONENT FOUR
SYNTHESIS

Focus: Self-examination, reflection, reaction and awareness.

Figure 1

SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES FOR RAISING AWARENESS WITHIN THE CURRICULUM

Since the discussion of gender issues can be extremely emotional and life-changing, it is important to provide a safe environment for growth and exploration. This necessitates that the counselor educator become comfortable with one's own gender issues and be willing to self-disclose personal growth and development in this area as well as one's mistaken notions. For students, a personal journal assignment may be most helpful to express feelings generated by this course material.

A number of gender awareness exercises can be incorporated into classes. Roberts (1991) developed exercises that assist in the articulation of gender survival messages, followed by a comparison of differences between males and females. Roberts recommends exercises that heighten awareness of how male/female role ideas develop.

A tool for bringing gender into classroom discussions or counseling sessions is the construction of circular questions concerning previous or current role constructs (Roberts, 1991). Circular questioning is an effective therapeutic tool that counselor/therapists use for many different issues (Smith, 1990).

The use of media as a tool to demonstrate gender bias is also suggested. For example, students could be required to trace the changes in gender and family issues in the last ten years of a professional journal. Observing gender roles and communication patterns on television (Saturday morning cartoons or daily soap operas) and in current films is enlightening (personal communication, Don W. Locke, 1991). Print advertisements also are useful tools for defining gender expectations in society. Participation in these activities heightens students' awareness of the gender messages given and received daily.

Another use of media is to observe taped counseling sessions for subtle gender messages given by the therapist to the client. Observing student counselors in training and providing feedback on gender messages are also helpful.

Completing a family genogram is a standard awareness exercise for counselor trainees. To examine three generations of same sex relatives in their family of origin in the areas of: health (physical and emotional), work (in and out of the home), and male/female family roles can be an effective method of examining gender expectations (Ault-Riche, 1988).

Counselors who have taken an interest in assisting men and women in establishing a clearer personal identity and developing positive interpersonal relationships find it essential that they themselves become educated in the complexity of gender issues. The diversity of these roles, developed over the past two decades, have created a difficult challenge for even the most experienced counselor. It is the counselor educators' responsibility to provide counselor trainees with opportunities to understand and experience diverse gender roles and family types.

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A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE ON INTERPERSONAL RACE RELATIONSHIPS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by Asa Belton, Jr., and Sue Spooner

Dr. Harry Canon, in his speech at the American College Personnel Association meeting in St. Louis, April 2, 1990, listed among his seven topics, which are controversial in the student affairs profession, the issue of self segregation by African-Americans and other minorities on predominantly white campuses. While questions have been and should continue to be raised about the effectiveness of student development theories in guiding our work with students of differing racial backgrounds, certain of those theories may offer us some pointed advice about ways in which college and university staff members supply leadership and role models for students who come from racially isolated backgrounds.

In their article about incorporating the development of African-American students into psychosocial theories of student development, McEwen, Roper, Bryan, and Langa (1990) suggest that there are nine developmental issues which need to be addressed by theorists. They include developing ethnic and racial identity, interacting with the dominant culture, developing cultural aesthetics and awareness, developing identity, developing interdependence, fulfilling affiliation needs, surviving intellectually, developing spiritually, and developing social responsibility. We believe that the latter seven of these apply equally to students from any ethnic background. The first two are of particular concern to students of color.

Students of color need to be able to deal with conflict because they must confront stereotypical attitudes and unfamiliar values.

Smith (1989) points out that it is important to involve students who are different in the institution's life and community. The quality of interaction between students and staff is a key element in the successful higher education experience of all students, and no less so for minority groups. Students of color need to be able to deal with conflict because they must confront stereotypical attitudes and unfamiliar values. Social isolation, if perpetuated, does not enable students to encounter and become involved with the institution, nor to experience challenges to their own stereotypes. "The condition of diversity is all too often a condition of alienation." (p. 2.)

Some African-American students who enter predominantly white universities come without necessary interpersonal communications skills they need in order to relate successfully to white students and students of other races beyond their own. The belief systems and myths about white people which were generated among African-American people during the post slavery period and made conscious during the civil rights struggle of the sixties are with us today and they affect very strongly the ways in which people of both races interact in society, and in predominantly white universities.

Many African-American students have lived their entire lives in a racially homogeneous family and community. They have socialized exclusively with other African-Americans in that community, attended segregated churches, and communicated, where possible, largely with each other in their work places. There were no white (Euro-American) people who visited their homes or shared dinner on Sundays. They did not visit white people in their homes nor did their parents visit white people in their homes. If African-Americans attended integrated public schools, they found relationships primarily with other African-American students. These students seldom saw their parents communicating with white adults in a relaxed manner at the grocery store, on their jobs, when they were having the car repaired, eating out, shopping for clothes, repairing their homes, visiting their physicians, or voting for a political candidate.

These African-American students observed their parents visiting and socializing nearly exclusively with other African-American people. The belief system of such an environment often supports doubt and suspicion about those who are racially different. There need not be any direct exhortation not to trust white people; the simple absence of contact suggests doubt and mistrust. If the above description also applies, in reverse, to most white families, (and we believe it does) is the message to their children any different?

What happens to African-American students when they arrive at predominantly white universities? They don't easily find many Black faces available to reinforce the belief system from which they have just emerged. Initially, these students are in search of other African-Americans in order to support their view that whites are to be avoided because contact with them leads to trouble. This presents an intensely painful cognitive and psychosocial challenge for students who come from isolated backgrounds. It is much easier to believe in myths and to perpetuate those myths

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than to explore a more interpersonally communicative approach to one's uncertainty. If we, as professional staff within universities, encourage, or even allow by default, these students to remain within individual, racially isolated enclaves, in the name of promoting racial identity, we only increase their uncertainty about themselves, each other, and those who are racially different from themselves.

Some African-American students who come to predominantly white universities, grew up with white friends and more comfortable interactions between races. These students may have a difficult time understanding the racially isolated student's attitudes. But they can offer those students a more balanced perspective on interracial relationships, based on experience rather than ignorance and fear.

Too often, African-American students who interact well with white students and white faculty are not viewed as a source of support by the isolated African-American student. They may instead be viewed with suspicion and mistrust. During the mid-sixties, Fanon (1967) in his book, *Black Skin, White Masks*, mocked Black people who were successfully working and socializing with white people. For many isolated African-Americans, the beliefs expressed by Fanon are vivid to this day. The creation of racial enclaves on predominantly white campuses can perpetuate the false beliefs carried by students from isolated backgrounds. Instead of using their developing racial and ethnic identity as a base from which to explore interaction with the dominant culture, these students may stay isolated if the example of professional staff does not encourage the risk taking necessary to move outward from the enclave.

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When African-American professionals at a university live the same isolated existence as the African-American students, can such students be helped to grow developmentally by those professionals? It is often suggested, even demanded, that there be a Black cultural center established to help African-American students maintain their cultural identity in the presence of white students. These centers exist on many predominantly white campuses, and can be a very positive addition to the educational environment when they increase interpersonal contact, and expand intercultural awareness and knowledge on campus for both African-American and white students in an atmosphere of mutual trust and acceptance. However, in some cases, these centers can also become enclaves which perpetuate historical black/white myths that encourage students to remain developmentally at an early stage of tolerance. By denying African-American students the opportunity to experience the necessary cognitive and psychosocial growth which the presence of white students can stimulate, we perpetuate the notion that there is something to fear from white people. Staff of such cultural centers may assert that they are open to white students, but whites do not feel particularly welcome in them. This is an insult to the intellect of students of both races. Higher education institutions ought to be creating healthy environments for students in which parents can feel confident that their children of any race are being exposed to the best possible interpersonal education. Professionals in student development know that interpersonal communication can be helpful to any student's development. We also know, from both cognitive developmental theory and psychosocial theory that a certain amount of conflict and challenge is useful and probably necessary for such individual growth and development. If we do not provide some opportunity for students to experience the cognitive dissonance that is created when our experience does not match our expectations, we are denying students an invaluable educational stimulus to growth. Cognitive conflict in interpersonal race relationships provides the stimulus to examine beliefs which may not be supported by experience. If we encourage and abet students in remaining isolated from those who are different from themselves, we will continue to send them a message that the myths and legends they have absorbed about other races are the sources as well as the resolution of their problems. Thus, a sort of scapegoat mentality is perpetuated, in which forces beyond one's control are blamed for all one's woes.

Rodgers, writing in Creamer (1980), maintains that cognitive developmental theorists in student affairs believe growth is stimulated when the individual experiences some cognitive conflict. Perry's Scheme, as described by Rodgers, conceptualizes three levels, dualism, relativism, and commitment through relativism. through which students develop during and after their college education. In dualism, the individual's perception and organization of reality is in terms of right and wrong, good and bad, with no shades of meaning nor any uncertainty. There are answers for everything, and all knowledge is categorical. Whatever your own race, and whatever your stereotyped perceptions of other races may be, they are held most strongly at this developmental stage. The dualistic individual believes and functions on the basis of those earlier myths and legends. In college, students should come into conflict with the belief systems they have maintained over earlier periods of life. Here interpersonal race experiences are very necessary to challenge the individual to conceptualize a world which presents new and different information in a supportive and caring environment. This cannot be done in isolation because the individual must be in the presence of the source of the myth to experience the conflict. It is in this way that cultural centers which encourage and support isolation can become a haven for the perpetuation of racial myths and legends, particularly on predominantly white campuses.

In Perry's second level, relativism, the assumptions of absolute right or wrong are somewhat relaxed and knowledge begins to be seen as less concretely certain. Some unknowns are accepted, and the possibility of multiple perspectives can be entertained. Students who have developed relativistic views are able to relax some of the beliefs they have previously held about each other and can begin to learn some new realities about other races. A reflection of such thinking may be, "Well, maybe not all black/white people are like that, even though some are."

At the level of commitment in relativism, the student is defining his/her identity in terms of a personal commitment to a set of beliefs which are based on personal exploration, considered analysis of experience, and the recognition that not all opinions have equal credibility in the overall scheme of things. At this stage, students can relate to each other as individuals and are no longer bound by myths and legends. Failure to reach this stage is particularly distressing when it can be attributed to staff who have denied students the opportunities needed to reach understanding and appreciation of differences and commonalities. In well programmed cultural centers, such growth and understanding can be promoted.

Chickering (1969) developed his psychosocial developmental theory through observation of European-American college students between the ages of seventeen and twenty-five. His seven vectors reflect what he empirically observed to be important in the growth of college students. His first three vectors are developing competence, managing emotions, and developing autonomy, which together lead to the fourth, establishing identity. The remaining three are freeing interpersonal relationships, developing purpose, and developing integrity. For detailed descriptions of the tasks and content of each vector, the reader is referred to *Education and Identity.* By applying Chickering's ideas about development to the interracial experiences of college students, we can see how important contact between racially different students must be. Too many of our students are entering and leaving predominantly white universities with their myths about other races still intact because of a lack of interpersonal racial contact at a level of mutual testing and understanding. If racially different students do not have an opportunity to relate interpersonally, they cannot resolve their isolation from each other, and achieve not only greater tolerance, but better resolution of their personal identities. Without this, we simply allow the myths of the past four hundred years to be perpetuated. In higher education, which should be the ultimate arena within which a wide range of opinions and ideas are freely explored, and where a personal style and world view are developed, should we not be offering our youth and ourselves as full an opportunity as possible for growth?

Do we really believe that African-American students will lose their identity as Black people of African descent if they socialize with white students? If we do not use the cultural centers to help students understand their heritage, treasure their commonalities, and respect their differences, we negate the most basic tenets of the mission and purpose of higher education. Students at integrated universities can lose their dependency on myths and legends about each other and discover that they are able to function well with each other. But this cannot occur if the races remain in isolation from one another. If we do not encourage our students to interact with each other, we perpetuate the same false beliefs and myths about each other that have fueled racism and fear for so many years. We must try, for the sake of ourselves, and our youth, to learn how to talk to and understand each other without fear that we will lose our identity or compromise the integrity of our heritage.

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A RESPONSE TO: A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE ON INTERPERSONAL RACE RELATIONSHIPS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by F. C. Luna, Ed.D.

One welcomes the foray into the area of sensitive issues on college and university campuses by the writer of *A Developmental Perspective on Interpersonal Race Relations in Higher Education.* The article focuses on the issue of self segregation by African-Americans and other minorities on predominantly white campuses and the guidance certain student development theories may offer college and university staff members in supplying leadership and role models for students who come from racially isolated backgrounds.

One cannot argue with the article's points that it is important to involve students who are different in the institution's life and community. Social isolation short-circuits such involvement as well as decreasing students' ability to deal with conflict and to experience challenges to their own stereotypes. However, two important points seem not to be addressed fully.

First, the underlying dynamics and motivations for the existence of racially isolated enclaves are more complex and subtle than searching for "...other African-Americans in order to support their view that whites are to be avoided because contact with them leads to trouble." It can be suggested, for example, that such racial or ethnic enclaves on predominantly Western-Euro-American campuses provide a base and a vehicle for disenfranchised students to fill their needs for inclusion, connection, and grounding. Further, participation in the enclave helps the members coalesce and endows members with the strength to make claims on the larger campus. These students are then ready to face the challenge of using their developing racial and ethnic identity to explore and become involved in the institution's life and community. They too can deal more effectively with conflict and stereotyping. In order to reap the rewards of a developmental perspective, students' chances are greatly improved if they have a safe and trusting base from which to develop.

Second, the process and components for creating a healthy, welcoming environment on campus for all students involve more than an understanding of Perry's cognitive developmental levels as helpful as that is. It is true that students should have the opportunity to reach the level of committed relativism and thereby relate to others as individuals while no longer being bound by misinformation

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by Martelle Chapital

In response to Asa Belton and Sue Spooner, I offer the following response as additional information for readers to consider.

> *A canon is a "norm, criterion, model or standard used for evaluating or criticizing" (Webster's, 1986, p. 328). It is also "a basic general principle or rule commonly accepted as true, valid, and fundamental" (Ibid). A specific and identifiable canon is used to define, select, and evaluate knowledge in school and university curriculum in the United States and in other western nations. This canon is rarely explicitly defined or discussed. It is taken for granted, unquestioned, and internalized by writers, researchers, teachers, professors, counselors, and students. It is European-centric a and male-dominated. It often marginalizes the experiences of people of color, Third World Nations and cultures, and the perspectives and histories of women.*
>
> *. . . the canon must be transformed so that it recognizes and legitimates the histories and cultures of people of color and women as essential parts of the U.S. and the world. Only when the canon is transformed to reflect cultural diversity will students in our schools and college be able to attain the knowledge, skills and perspectives needed to participate effectively in the global society of the next century.*

- Banks, James - The Battle Over the Canon: Cultural
Diversity and Curriculum Reform. (Hall, 1989).
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Danger: The Underprepared Counselor

Theories, research, techniques, and explanations contributing to the study of human development and its stages have traditionally excluded women and people of color as subjects of investigation. It is no wonder that we find articles and descriptors that negate the experiences, beliefs, and values of a large population of our society. When the lack of scholarship and awareness is so apparent, it is the duty/responsibility of those in the helping profession as well as those who educate the masses, to generate, and develop those models and techniques that match the

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values of divergent cultures, rather than follow a unimodal generalization that incorporates all groups from a dominant cultural perspective (Petersen, 1987). There is an abundance of evidence that those who do not are responsible for perpetuating the myths and stereotypes that promote domination in a closed, biased, and culturally encapsulated system. This indeed is dangerous.

Discussions, statements, and theories directed at or about people of color as well as women must be addressed from both the macro- and micro-perspectives (the individual as well as the group). In non-Western societies, separation of the individual from the group is unnatural and conflicts with the value of the unit as well as with the role.

Consideration must also be given to the development process from an ethnic and historical perspective. For the connection with the past and present formulates the context to understand present behavior and causes. Thus, the development process should be placed within the context of significant engagement with family, community, and world work. Awareness of the internal and external prohibitors can give everyone clearer understanding of the dynamics at hand.

It is indeed a fact that racism and sexism has been an integral part of the American life. Fantasies about race have energized human culture since the beginning of Western civilization. Racism has been and continues to be a social pathology to be contended with in shaping the lives of people (Ruffin, 1989). Therefore, it becomes an internal or external prohibitor against one's growth.

Culturally diverse populations continue to struggle in an oppressive society for there is an absence of external networks of institutions that provide roles for each person's engagement. This is detrimental to development. For the ability to achieve in a racist society requires a transcending of racial stereotypes, and an internalization of healthy racial issues (Gooden, W.).

It is difficult for those who have not traditionally prepared themselves to operate or live in a multicultural society to comprehend or understand why we find so many successes. With the knowledge that development cannot be simply an account of personal failure or success, but is the story of how individuals encounter and respond to social opportunities and restrictions in their efforts at forming a viable life. Skilled at living in a bi-cultural world, not fully accepted in the majority of society, yet finding comfort and reassurance from his own group, underrepresented populations have found various ways of adapting and surviving in our society.

It is clear that those professionals who utilize the "deficit" model in explaining the behaviors (i.e., people of color) of others, understand that the development process has been a process of reconciling trends within "the self." The concept of balance is critical to the achievement of adaptive functioning in psychological theory (Jones, A., 1989).

When students of color or women are placed in an environment that lacks explicit alternatives to family and community as central components of their life structure, do they retreat? No, they find alternative means of support. They create their own communities, families, social structures, and as C. J. Jung states, "find an underlying spiritual core that helps direct life and restores the imbalances." Thus, a demonstration of resilience and adaptation. They learn to negotiate with mainstream societal structures, mastering two cultures - two competing realities. Competencies are developed as well as strategies for dealing with unaccepting oppressors. For the dynamics from these negative experiences of racism, discrimination, and restricted access of goods and services have often resulted in the development of group and personal resources (i.e., strong collective identity, and creative and flexible coping strategies (Hill, 1972; Litano, 1974; Myers, 1982; Stack, 1974; Gibbs & Huang, 1989).

The questions that we must continually ask ourselves as counselors and other professionals is, "do we change the student or do we change the institution? Are we prepared to assist students from different cultures? What training or information have we gathered about diverse cultures? Are we prepared to design interventions that will eradicate those role barriers?"

In conclusion, counselors, professors, and other professionals must continue to prepare themselves to exist in a multicultural society. They must question theories and materials based upon a western view and philosophy only. We exist in a global society. A world with many people and many cultures. No longer is a Western view canon; the World view exists.

If we are to provide assistance and strengthen those in our society, we must continue to seek the truth. The past must be studied--the present must be examined before we can change the future. One cannot base our practice and methods on one model - the deficit model. Can we define the norm in a changing society if we do not take in all the variables? Half truths, bad experiences should not dictate methods of delivery. Blaming others will not alleviate our responsibilities. Remembering a lack of knowledge, as well as a little knowledge, is a dangerous weapon.

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and un-analyzed beliefs. However, providing such an opportunity and creating a healthy, welcoming environment on campus for all students demands that the professional staff be interculturally competent. Staff members who have been trained in Inter-Cultural Competence Skills have the understanding and strength to support and guide students through the dissonance and challenges inherent in progressing through developmental levels of growth. These staff members provide the high quality experiences and inspiration necessary for all students including those from racial or ethnic enclaves. This permits them to risk becoming involved in the institution's life and community without fearing the loss of their identity or heritage. ■

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HATE GROUPS

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WHY THE DEVELOPMENTAL . . .

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do that at home." Through the use of the team approach, where all school staff are involved, and through public awareness education, we believe that those stereotypes will change. Students will be able to gain skills that will advance them throughout their lives in whatever roles they may choose.

It is the responsibility of the school counselor to be the central person in the developmental counseling program. The counselors provide direct services to the students, as well as work in consultative and collaborative relationships with the other members of the counseling team, with parents, and with members of the community.

Another aspect which may be considered unique to school counseling in rural areas is that counselors are involved with many different committees and efforts within the community. Among these are: "Just Say No" Club, Child Protection Team, Task Force for Drug/Free Youth, Guidance Advisory Board, Screening Review Advisory Team, and Crisis in Response Team. In larger cities these responsibilities are likely divided among different members of the counseling team. In rural areas, the counselor feels the need to serve on a number of committees and projects since there are not as many counselors, each counselor will have many more responsibilities.

The 1990 statistics from the Children's Defense fund show that every eight seconds of the school day a child drops out; every day 2,989 American children see their parents divorced; and every day, six teenagers commit suicide. Because of these statistics and many more equally as disturbing, it is important that our rural students are equipped with the skills needed to survive life intact. All children are at risk -- not necessarily of failing, but of not reaching their true potential (Glosoff & Koprowicz, 1990). Through the developmental approach to guidance, we want all our students to reach their true potential!

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CELEBRATION FOR INTERDEPENDENCE: MULTICULTURAL SPIRITUAL GROWTH

by Dottie Jefferies

What strengthens the counselor's role in celebrating the role of the multicultural spiritual journey? Explore the importance of the multicultural spiritual journey to celebrate interdependence.

Clients bring their hearts for healing as well as their minds to the counseling center. Interdependence in this article is interpreted to mean the healthy connectedness that humans crave because of their basic spirituality. Recognizing the interdependence also of the mind, body, and spirit in all cultures can release abundant untapped quantities of energy, love, joy, and freedom. Realizing the pain caused by ignoring or rejecting the relationship with the Higher Power, one discovers the empowering interdependence which comes from allowing God's presence to penetrate one's life.

To facilitate total growth as part of development for interdependence, it is imperative that we investigate cognitive-developmental process theories in relationship to spiritual growth in multicultural dimensions. We can explore spiritual growth and see such growth within the sphere of cognitive development. The levels of cognitive functioning include the sensorimotor, concrete, formal operations pattern, and dialectic/systemic thinking. A counselor can determine what level the client is operating in by determining the level of response. Random behavior and disorganized "bits and pieces" of thoughts and action indicate the client is operating in the sensorimotor level. The client moves into the concrete situation when he uses concrete and specific descriptions of events, thoughts, feelings, and behavior as if his description is the only one possible. With clients in the formal pattern level, watch for extensive analysis of self or situation with difficulty in working mutually with others. Alternatives and complex thinking indicate that the client is in the dialectic/systemic level. All of the above cognitive systems need to be in place for maximum growth, and then the counselor joins the client where he or she is developmentally.

Many of the concepts of self-actualization used in the developmental counseling put forward by Rogers (1980) and Maslow (1971) are those that also, coincidentally, have been considered basic in the purpose of Chinese Taoism, Zen Buddhism, and other religions. The Tao was defined by Ch'en (1977) as being the creative process present in nature that was responsible for all creation in life. Zen Buddhism emphasizes human naturalness and spontaneity and the potential attained by each human for achieving full independence in thought. Confucianism, in contrast, stresses the importance of mutual interdependence of people. Thus, it appears that the sage in Taoism and the enlightened person in Zen Buddhism bear similarities to the disciple of Christ who enables the follower of faith to receive abundant living. However, each religion is concerned with the development of the full human potential.

It is critical that counselors be flexible as we focus on the strengths of individuals in various stages of growth.

Perhaps this common perspective of humanity shared by spiritual and psychological views as diverse as Buddhism, Taoism, Islam, Judaism, Christianity, and the self-actualization theories of Rogers and Maslow, indicates a universality in human development and the need for interdependence. Zen Buddhism, according to D. T. Suzuki (1970), indicates that because the enlightened person is not disturbed by the differences that exist among people, everyone is experienced openly and receptively. A sincere Christian responds with love and sees others through the eyes of God in a caring way. Self worth increases for a person who recognizes his spirituality and is enabled to make significant contributions to the interdependence of human beings.

It is critical that counselors be flexible as we focus on the strengths of individuals in various stages of growth. For example, a person in any age group who is operating in the sensorimotor stage is aware of the present situation. People at this level appreciate relaxation activities, meditation, music, and dance. A person at the concrete level has a strong ability to describe what is happening to him or her. Techniques that work well for persons at this level include listening skills, problem solving, and assertion skills training. A person in the formal operations stage does extensive analysis of patterns, but fails to examine assumptions or feelings. Rogerian client-centered therapy, cognitive therapy, and psycho-dynamics are commonly utilized with persons at this level. Finally the strength of the dialectic systemic stage is the ability to see many perspectives. As client thinking patterns mature, counselors utilize cultural identity theories by Ponterotto (1988) and family therapy. Issues of transference and countertransference in the psychodynamic tradition are also illustrative of the dialectic systemic level to generate new multicultural awareness.

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Within the framework of cognitive development, guilt, blame, and resentment issues can be discussed and forgiven. In the sensorimotor stage, a person can recall the sounds, sights, and movements that caused hurt. In the concrete stage, the client could give a specific, linear description of the event. In the formal operations stage, the client and counselor can search for a pattern in situations. In the systemic thinking stage, life is viewed simultaneously as a journey and a destination.

Developmental blocks are found in life's interactions in the family, in school, and other social settings. Developmental blocks refer to obstacles to the natural flow from sensorimotor to concrete to formal operations into dialectic systemic thinking. Traumas or obstacles may be viewed as stepping stones to perseverance and growth. Traumas may be perceived as stumbling blocks by some when left without a spiritual growth foundation. This spiritual growth foundation looks like a solid bridge upon which a person who believes in God can cross. One can go through difficulties and hardships, such as a loss of a job or a loss of a loved one, without falling into deep despair. An individual gains hope. One has an inner strength to keep moving. A person has his or her vision set on the spiritual source of strength which gives the power and courage to accept what a person cannot change and courage to change what one can. In all these developmental stages, people have dependent needs.

When extending the developmental model and dependency needs to the issues of multicultural counseling, it is imperative that one look at the research exploring conceptions of minority identity development followed by a description of the importance of cultural issues in the counseling process. There may be even more variability in individual spiritual growth than in cultural according to Peterson (1988). Religion and family experiences contribute to each individual's unique personal culture. The culturally skilled counselor has moved from being culturally unaware to being aware and sensitive to his or her own cultural religious heritage and to valuing the positive similarities and respecting the differences according to Atkinson, Morten, and Sue (1989).

Upon examining the foundations of counseling developmental theory, one turns to introspective-developmental counseling to provide a systematic framework. This approach elaborated by Tamase and Machiko Fukuhara (1988) draws on Japanese Naikan therapy and the work of Erikson. Tamase argues that client personality trends and behavioral dispositions depend on life history. The goal of introspective-developmental counseling is to discover how past history repeats itself in present-day life. These developmental experiences common to Western and Eastern culture correspond to Erickson's life stages. The awareness of how one's life has been affected by one's family's spiritual development may create the desire to work through old remaining issues. Given the individualistic psychological tradition of Western society, counseling and therapy, in themselves, cannot accomplish the balance between individualism and communal relationship or interdependence. Only by integrating the spiritual growth can one see a balance and an interdependence.

Dependency is a common problem and a multicultural issue. Japanese researchers Kogi Tamase and Fukuhara, Nara University of Education, Tokyo, conducted systemic research on the developmental model and first demonstrated the multicultural utility of this model. The significance of their work states that developmental experiences are common to Western and Eastern culture. Tamase says that we can view our cognitive-developmental history as a natural progression of concrete life events that we organize into patterns of thought and action. Clients can gain new knowledge of their relations with others from a developmental and interdependent frame of reference. Oscar Goncalves, University of Minh, Portugal, sees his cognitive processes intertwine with the conceptual framework presented by Dr. Allen Ivey and Kogi Tamase.

However, with a strong spiritual foundation, dependent individuals can reframe and learn to cope physically and emotionally with the experiences and tasks encountered in the world. In a spiritual definition, acceptance is giving the person what he or she does not have by relating with unconditional love. The individual then begins to gain an awareness of the nature of healthy relationships. He or she learns to set limits, nurture, set clear boundaries, and move toward autonomy. Nevertheless, the goal remains one of interdependence.

Spiritual development related to the developmental theory then becomes practical. We are connected with one another. Each part of our development affects our total being and each contact with another person provides us with another opportunity for connection and further development. The Yakima American Indian Nation shared their tradition through proverbs. This one is intriguing:

Time is a relationship between events,
Kept fresh in memory by
selected beads on knotted hemp.
Connection is as vital as separation.
By the time one is a grandparent,
The unity of life is wrapped and
remembered in a Time Ball.
Progression to maturity
is the work of the young
But it requires the guidance
and support of adults.
When thoughts and actions
become one with God,
Spiritual maturing is the result,
and respect is mutual.

Thus, acknowledging the Supreme Being involves a new personal relationship. Some give themselves to God on the basis of His promise to give Himself to them. Those who acknowledge this new relationship with God say they have found the secret of true interdependence. This means in

(Continued on pg. 37)

FIRST, A PERSON SECOND, DISABLED

by Meredith Wood

"The Masai Indians murdered their disabled children; the Azand tribe loved and protected theirs. The Chagga of East Africa used their disabled to ward off evil; the Jukun of the Sudan felt that they were the work of evil spirits and abandoned them to die. The Sem Ang of Malaysia used their crippled as wise men to settle tribal disputes; the Balanese made them a societal 'taboo' (Buscaglia, 1975, p. 171). Indeed, segregation, whether intended or not, still characterizes the relationship many disabled have with their 'non-disabled' world.

In these relationships, the reactions toward the disabled often surface as fear and avoidance. Hebbs (1946) suggested that this phenomena arises from the discomfort which comes when one's expectations of 'what should be' are confused by the perception of finding something is radically missing. People are expecting the ordinary and are frightened when they must now adapt their thinking to the 'strange and exceptional.' This discomfort and fear (often covert) reverts to thinking which returns that individual to their comfort zone, and all too often results in stereotypical labeling and expectations. Humans are more comfortable when they can limit the unknown by boxing things into categories with neat definitions. Most often the stereotype we create of the disabled relegates him to an inferior status in society. "The common stereotype often assigned to a person with a disability is that of one to whom we attribute great suffering, whose life is disturbed, distorted, and forever damaged. We see this poor person as one who is permanently enmeshed in his problem and for whom any kind of real adjustment is impossible, or, at best, superficial" (Buscaglia, 1975, p. 173). If the disabled person does achieve, we tend to laud him with great amounts of praise, overvalue his achievement, admire his 'strength', simply because his behavior contrasts with our limited perception or expectation of his capabilities.

Herein I enter: I am a person who has a physical disability. I am NOT a physically disabled person. Though this may seem contradictory, I point your attention to the order in which the words are placed. In the former, the implication is that I am first a person and secondarily disabled. In the latter phrase, the first introduction you have to me is that of physically disabled. This simple phraseology switch shows to me that a person has begun to be aware that we cannot define individuals by their limitations. To support one in the fullness of their personhood is to recognize their inherent potential, and to focus on that which each person is capable of doing. The world is full of discouragers, people who pour cold water on one's ideals; the gift is found in the encourager who supports growth toward full self.

As I consider my process of growth, I am aware that many were the steps which led to my eventual independence. Diagnosed with Juvenile Rheumatoid Arthritis at 18 months of age required many adjustments for parents in shock and school systems which still knew little of how to deal with those who struggled physically. Preparing for the career world was even yet a greater challenge. Recognizing functional limitations and adjusting to those limitations emotionally were keys to success.

Most often the stereotype we create of the disabled relegates him to an inferior status in society.

How advantageous it would have been were I to have had a support system which had 'been there before.' Now, I become the support system, sharing the successes and failures of personal experience with others on that same journey, or with those who may counsel disabled individuals. It is important that we recognize that many of the ordinary, everyday situations which may be taken for granted by the majority of the people in this country, pose new challenges for those of us who are disabled. In addressing a counselor who is working with this population, I would remind them that although there are many elements common to the traditional career-counseling program, these individuals' needs often require specially designed assessment instruments, materials, and career-counseling techniques. Of even more importance, however, is the counselor who advises the disabled to become their own counselor. "The disabled individual more than anyone else will know his desires, his needs, his problems, his strengths, and his weaknesses. The individual will have to make his own plan - his own decisions about where he is going and how he is going to get there. He will be the one required to learn, to change and to act." (Buscaglia, 1975, p. 223) I believe this taking charge of one's own life is greatly enhanced when each 'special needs' individual strives to understand the personal dynamics of adjustment and becomes hardy in will.

WILL - individuals with disabilities must acquire, at an early age, a strong sense of will - the desire to pilot their own ship (with some auxiliary assistance) through the storms of rejection, loveliness, pain, stereotypes, inflicted labels, ignorance, employer reluctance, attitudinal barriers, floundering self-concepts, and lack of models and norm groups.

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Once I, as an individual, recognized my strength of will, I was ready to risk, discover, and accept full responsibility for my existence. Were this will not developed, I would have been then forced to accept the alternative of being at the mercy of those others seen as more powerful than myself--doctors, therapists, even families.

UNDERSTANDING THE PERSONAL DYNAMICS OF ADJUSTMENT

"Such aspects as dissatisfaction with self, self-defeating ideas, hope, forgiveness, the processes involved in the study of self, trying out new behavior, the integrating of new learning with self, will all play a part in the process of his adjustment." (Buscaglia, 1975, p. 226)

Counseling an individual who is disabled must embody these concepts of "development of will" and "dynamics of adjustment" in its genesis. It is from this starting point, which incidentally is a long-term process and one which must constantly be readdressed, that I came to know intrapersonal, interpersonal, and career success.

As I consider the information I have shared thus far, it occurs to me that my reader might be questioning how these concepts are so different from what is emphasized with the 'normal' population? In fact, it is not the concepts which may be so different (certainly each of us struggles with our own limitations), but it is the frame of reference which differentiates individuals with physical disabilities.

The following list gives a small sample of that difference:

1 .Interpersonal relationships - most often the person who is disabled will never be able to exist completely alone, no matter how tempting the thought. Having experienced a variety of "first-meetings" wherein they have been rejected may lead the disabled to avoid contact altogether (even though they desperately need relationships) or be tempted to hide their disability so as to avoid negative interpersonal experiences.

2. Rejection - this can be an overt reaction or perhaps, more difficult, is the subtle forms which it takes.

3. Limitations of experience - impairments have too often caused the disabled to be overprotected, isolated, pitied, and pampered to the detriment of developing a very mature self-image. Indeed, limitations do arise for the disabled, but that does not infer that this individual must be a limited person.

4. Suffering - for the disabled, the pain is real--both physically and psychologically. Frequently having to endure severe pain at each movement, drug side effects, or organ dysfunction can be draining, debilitating and demanding.

5. Inferiority and lowered status - we all have ideals; for the disabled that ideal is often the performance standards of the nondisabled. There are those for whom this normal performance is physically or mentally impossible, but they continue to hold up these ideals as 'musts' for success. Needless to say, this can only lead to eventual loss of self-esteem.

6. Employer resistance - generalizations which are formed as a result of being labeled as handicapped or disabled often inhibit opportunities in the job market. Zunker states, "Employers are reluctant to hire the handicapped because of erroneous assumptions; more sick leave will be required, insurance rates will be affected, safety on the job will be endangered, and plant modifications will be mandatory." (Zunker, 1990, p. 449) Yet research involving disabled and the workplace gives us the following information:

> Another widely quoted survey of the work performance of handicapped individuals was conducted by E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company, (Sears, 1975). The 8-month study gathered data on 1,452 employees with disabilities such as blindness, heart disease, impaired vision, paralysis, epilepsy, impaired hearing, total deafness, and orthopedic problems. The major findings are:
>
> 1. There are no increases in compensation costs or lost-time injuries, important factors in insurance rates;
> 2. most handicapped workers require no special adjustments to the work place;
> 3. 96% of the handicapped workers rate average or better in safety, both on and off the job. More than one-half are above average. Sears states that the study found the disabled worker to be more safety conscious than the average employee;
> 4. the handicapped worker wants to be treated as a regular employee and does not want to be singled out for special privileges;
> 5. 91% of the handicapped workers rate average or better on job performance; and
> 6. 79% of the handicapped workers rate average or better on attendance." (Brolin, 1979, p. 342)

As I consider the above situations, I am reminded of my own roadblocks to successful integration of my physical, personal, and professional self. I recall, at an early age, striving to be "more intelligent," or "more academic" to compensate for the physical limitations I could not overcome, and the stereotypes that came from others when addressing someone "different." People, in their ignorance, would speak to me slowly (as though I were intellectually limited) or loudly (as if I were deaf); they would direct questions to my mother rather than to me; they would admire my strength with "I don't know how you do it; I could never go through the things that you've had to endure." Though this latter comment is meant to be a compliment, I always felt quite unworthy to receive it. After all, if one chooses to live life abundantly, how can one do anything but charge through the circumstances? "Enduring it" is simply something I do as I love life; it is not some great noble gesture. Certainly the other options signal a choice merely to survive life, rather than to experience it.

The growth from youth to adolescence saw a conscious effort to make some futuristic decisions. In that many of my peers spurned me (avoiding me, mimicking my walk, ignoring me), I continued to throw myself into my education. I dreamed of being a doctor, a psychologist, a teacher. I knew only that I wanted to make sure that the mark I left would bring hope to the less than rich, assurance to the less than confident, and belief in "I CAN" to the less than able.

Realizing that being a doctor demanded too much physically, I began to look at my other options, and to challenge the thinking of those around me who were limited in vision. It seemed I was at a point in life where many felt a need to counsel me as to what was reasonable to expect from myself and my arthritic body.

> "It's better that you get an automatic car than a stick shift. A stick shift will be too hard for you." "Don't try to grow your hair long. Due to the medicine, it will only split at the ends and will never look good with much length." "Don't buy a house with a yard. It's too much work for you." "Don't become a teacher. That's too strenuous and requires too much time on your feet."

And so, I became a teacher, drove a stick shift car, grew long hair, and bought a house with a yard. Though not all the advice was inappropriate (some of it even wise) I had to show myself and others I could undertake any task on which I had set my mind.

My next job was to sell myself to an employer! Fortunately, I had an opportunity to "prove" myself through my student teaching experience and the district hired me soon after I completed my education. Reflecting on 13 years of employment as a teacher, and 33 years as a woman with a handicap, I would suggest to counselors four approaches to recommend to their clients as they tackle pursuit of a full-time career. These suggestions are based on the victories and defeats of first-hand experiences.

1. Be honest, direct, and open about your limitations in terms the employer can understand. Stereotypes will change only as you fill in the blanks. Taking away some of the questions which lie in the back of the supervisor's mind as regards what you can and can't do will assure both of you of a more suitable "match." On the other hand, don't be so verbose concerning your problems that your listener turns you off or begins to see you as a chronic complainer. Honest moderation is the key!

2. Never use your handicap as an excuse. Rather, relay its limitations realistically. In each job there are oftentimes we will be asked to do something that is less than desirable - indeed, it may even cause the disabled a bit of discomfort - but if one can do the task without risk to future health or great physical pain, I would encourage the individual to complete the task, no matter the temptation to bow out. (Here I emphasize: USE SOUND JUDGMENT! It makes no sense to play the martyr. The costs can be too great if you do it as a matter of "I-ought-to" rather than out of wise consideration as to your body's ability.) Do all that you can do, not forsaking thoughts of long-term effects. You are the role model who will set the stage for the future hiring of people who are disabled. To emphasize that we desire to be treated as "normally" as everyone else, will pave the road for the next individual.

3. Strive not to feel ashamed or guilty for what you can't do. In that we often see the 'normal' population as our role models, we may find ourselves coming up short. Quite honestly, this self-evaluation is usually more rigorous than that we would receive from our boss or co-workers. If we have been honest from the start, it is expected that there will be some differences. Therefore, remember to be gentle with yourself. Negative stereotypes have followed us for some time but many studies bring new assurance to the employer and his 'handicapped' employee.

4. Keep your sense of humor. Being able to laugh at yourself and with others will help keep you sharp in a frequently stressful environment. More often than not, employers are more interested in an individual's ability to get along with others, maintain a positive work attitude and stay motivated, than they are about their technical skills. As you share the FULL YOU, people will begin to experience the person first, the disability second.

The road to integration of physical, personal and professional self is long and exciting. My adventure has created for me the above four remembrances. Certainly, we have come a long way from the Masai or Jukun treatment of disabled, but undoubtedly, we still have a long way to go. As I meet you on this journey, I hope that I introduce you first to the woman professional, and then with learned pride to the disabled me. Together we're better!

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EFFECTIVENESS OF A SUPPORT GROUP FOR ADULTS AT-RISK FOR HUNTINGTON'S DISEASE

by Margaret B. Dorn and Patrick Sherry

Abstract

The present study compared the effectiveness of a support group for persons at-risk for Huntington's Disease to a matched control group. Participants in the support group reported significantly lower levels of anxiety at post-test than non-treatment controls. No effects were found for self-reported levels of depression, which were within normal levels both pre- and post-test.

Huntington's Disease (HD) is an incurable and fatal genetic disorder. Post-mortem examinations of advanced cases have revealed neurological damage to the caudate nucleus and putatum (Spokes, et al., 1980). Reflecting the characteristic neurodegenerative process, the symptom picture of HD includes motor abnormalities, dementia, emotional and personality changes. The illness begins insidiously, resulting in death within 10 to 20 years of onset, often due to choking, infection, or subdural hematoma (Folstein & Folstein, 1983). Symptoms may appear across the lifespan, but most commonly appear between 30 to 50 years of age (Bruyn, 1968). Age of onset is influenced by hereditary factors (Meyers, et. al., 1984). The offspring of affected fathers often have an earlier onset than their affected parent. The prevalence is five to ten per hundred thousand in populations of Western European origin (Conneally, 1984).

Although medical knowledge of the disease process in affected patients is now considerable, little is known about the experience of persons who are at-risk for HD (Wexler, 1979). One might reasonably expect that, as a result of living with or otherwise having knowledge of an affected parent, some at-risk individuals become keenly aware of the possibility of developing the disease and its debilitating symptoms. Research with other populations has shown that persons who anticipate the onset of severe stress often adopt a hypervigilant attitude (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Wexler (1979) reports that, among persons at-risk for HD, a process of "symptom searching" for emerging symptoms often becomes a focal point in these individuals' lives. "Symptom searching" may involve comparisons between oneself and the behavioral and emotional phenotypic characteristics of their relatives who are affected with HD. Maintaining such an ongoing anticipatory coping effort, in an attempt to manage a sense of uncontrollability, may lead to feelings of anger, anxiety, and depression (Wexler, 1979).

Among persons at-risk for HD, these problems and concerns may be further complicated by a loss of social support and external rewards. For example, some at-risk individuals may choose a life of isolation without a spouse or family in order to avoid the possibility of passing on the gene or of becoming a burden to loved ones. In addition, the at-risk person may feel a need to keep their genetic disease risk status from employers, insurance companies, and sometimes friends (Falek, 1979). Furthermore, concern about developing the disease could lead to a reluctance to enter long-term relationships or accept career promotions (Wexler, personal communication, 1985; 1991). These coping strategies may contribute to isolation and a sense of aloneness in carrying the burden of being at-risk (Dorn & Schouten, 1991). In view of the importance of social support as a buffer against stress (Cobb, 1976), these isolative life-style adaptations can have far-reaching mental health implications.

There is some evidence, based on genetic counseling with HD patients and their families, to suggest that not only the patient affected with HD, but also the family as a whole could benefit from support, particularly during periods of life crisis and when the behavioral manifestations of the disease are severe in the affected family member (Tyler, et al., 1983). In view of these problems, and issues described earlier, individuals at-risk for HD may be at-risk for considerable distress. Accordingly, a counseling intervention was developed to address the special needs of those at-risk for HD. In particular, a semi-structured support group for adults at-risk for developing HD was designed with the following goals:

1. To clarify the nature of "being at-risk" for HD.
2. To ventilate and give feedback on specific HD at-risk issues.
3. To share effective ways of coping.
4. To develop new effective coping strategies.
5. To confront group members' overidentification with the at-risk for HD identity.
6. To decrease negative affect.

The remainder of this article describes how the group developed across the eight sessions and what the pre- and post-psychological test results indicated about the efficacy of this group therapy intervention. It was expected that, following the intervention, support group participants would report lower levels of anxiety and depression than at-risk individuals who had not attended the group.

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SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURE

Subjects for the treatment group were recruited from the membership of a local organization for HD patients and their families. Volunteers for the control group were recruited through the HD Roster at the University of Indiana Medical School in Indianapolis, Indiana. The experimental group members consisted of 4 men and 6 women with a mean age of 35.5 years. The control group consisted of 3 men and 7 women with a mean age of 31.5 years. Participants were told of the experimental nature of the project and informed consent was obtained. The project was approved by the University of Indiana Internal Review Board for the use of human subjects.

All participants were asked to complete and return two brief pre-test measures of anxiety and depression, as well as a questionnaire that probed into the experience of being at-risk for HD. Prospective participants were screened to eliminate persons who may have been inappropriate for a support group due to psychological difficulties.

INSTRUMENTS

The Institute for Personality and Ability Testing (IPAT) Anxiety Scale (Krug & Laughlin, 1976) and Depression Scale (Krug, Scheier, & Cattell, 1976) were used in this investigation. The IPAT Anxiety scale has been used in a number of treatment outcome studies. Following intervals of one to four weeks, the IPAT Anxiety Scale has been found to have test-retest reliabilities that range between .82 to .93. Corrected split-half internal consistency reliability estimates have ranged between .78 and .92. Scores on the Anxiety Scale correlate with clinical ratings of anxiety and other self-report measures of anxiety, with validity coefficients that ranged between .49 to .70.

The evidence of reliability and validity for the IPAT Depression Scale is acceptable. No test-retest reliability estimate is reported in the manual. However, internal reliabilities (computed as both parallel split-halves and coefficient alpha) were quite high and were consistent across diverse samples, ranging between .85 and .96. Evidence of validity includes significant differences between normals and diagnosed depressives and correlations with other measures of depression, with coefficients that ranged between .31 and .75.

An At-Risk Survey (ARS) was developed for this study to gather information about how individuals feel about their lives and their at-risk for HD status. The questionnaire consisted of 20 open-ended questions, including historical items such as: How old were you when you found out? Who told you? What was your initial reaction? How accurate was the information you were told?

TREATMENT

The group met weekly for eight sessions of 1-1/2 hours duration. Graduate students in Counseling Psychology, one male and one female, co-led the group. In general, the leaders focused on interpersonal issues in an attempt to increase self-disclosure and cohesion among the members.

Session I. During the first session, the group leaders reviewed the research project with the members. The voluntary nature of participation and confidentiality issues were discussed. Each member gave a brief background on their "experience of being at-risk for HD." Next, the leaders facilitated the development of an agenda of mutually-agreed-upon issues to be addressed during the course of the support group. Unique issues related to being at-risk for HD were identified through brainstorming and then grouped into thematic material that would give a flexible structure to the next seven meetings. At the end of the first and subsequent sessions, participants were asked to give their feedback on the group session for that day.

Session II. The group discussed their responses to individual items on the At-Risk Survey pertaining to how they coped with finding out about their at-risk status. Other items discussed included: How do you cope now? How much of the time do you spend thinking about HD? How do you separate HD issues from the rest of life? This was a cohesiveness-building session through which participants realized how much they had in common.

Session III. The group shared the personal coping strategies they used to deal with the feelings of lack of control and chronic uncertainty that they felt being "at-risk" for such a lethal disease. A discussion of "symptom searching" helped bring personal fears of developing the disease into focus. This sharing experience seemed to have been helpful in diffusing the weight that secrecy seems to impose on HD families.

Session IV. This discussion focused on the perceptions of adults at-risk for HD about the possibilities for commitments concerning marriage, family, long-term relationships, career, and educational advancements. All of these possibilities were seen as involving commitments which are hard to make in the face of the long-term disability that would accompany the mid-life onset of HD (Bruyn, 1968). To highlight the factors that affect decisions about commitment, group members were asked to imagine how a child might feel about being born into a family whose parents were aware that they are genetically at-risk for HD.

Session V. Discussion of feelings and fears of becoming disabled was the topic for this session. Members developed deeper feelings of closeness and cohesion with an increasing awareness of their commonality in this regard. The phenomena of "going public" with their feelings seemed to be both exciting and frightening to most.

Session VI. Resuscitating a severely affected parent, who had expressed wishes to die, a crucial ethical issue, was the topic of this session. Group members exchanged views on suicide, euthanasia, being an accomplice to suicide, and resuscitation. The members also agreed to invite a geneticist to provide a formal description and discussion of HD.

Session VII. Group members discussed the moral, personal, and ethical implications of pre-symptomatic diagnostic testing. The personal relevance of particular issues was addressed, including: What are the rights of the at-risk individual to receive a diagnosis of HD? At what age? Despite parental disagreements? What are the moral obligations of the scientists who perform diagnostic testing? Will you take the test? Who would you want to be with you for the testing? Do you believe you have HD at this time? If you tested positive, how would you want to be told? How would you expect your life to be changed as a result of finding out whether or not you have the disease? This session provided an important opportunity for value clarification about the choice of whether to take the pre-symptomatic test.

Session VIII. The last group session was devoted to stress management training as well as the talk on genetics that had been planned in a previous session. Group feedback at the end of the last session indicated that members would have preferred to spend the time sharing with each other, rather than listening to didactic presentations about techniques for stress management. Summarizing many group members' final evaluations, one participant commented: "The burden is not lifted, but the sense of aloneness is relieved." At the conclusion of this last session, participants completed the post-treatment anxiety and depression questionnaires and an open-ended measure designed to assess changes in coping and personal well-being.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Treatment effects for this support group were analyzed by an analysis of co-variance, with the treatment and non-treatment conditions as a two-level independent variable. The dependent measures were the post-test anxiety and depression scores with the corresponding pretest scores as co-variates.

Due to drop-out, the analysis compared seven experimental group participants to the original ten control group participants. The means and standard deviations for these for the pre- and post-depression and anxiety scores for both groups are shown in Table I. The treatment effect was significant for anxiety, $F(1, 19) = 3.33$, $p < .001$. No such effect was found for depression, which was within normal range both pre- and post-testing.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we documented a significant reduction in self-reported anxiety for adults at-risk for HD who participated in a support group as compared to those who did not participate in the group. This finding is encouraging, but should be interpreted in light of a potentially important limitation that applies to most psychotherapy outcome research. The control group received no treatment. Experimental subjects did receive treatment, but it remains unclear whether their improvements in anxiety were simply due to having received attention. In addition, due to a lack of random assignment of subjects to the two conditions, it is not possible to determine whether subject characteristics contributed to the successful outcome.

No treatment effect was found for self-reported depression. This may indicate the specificity of the treatment effect and thus may mitigate against the limitation noted above. Alternatively, the finding of no significant reduction in depression may be due to the fact that the group members were not depressed at pre- or post-test.

The feedback received from group members has potentially useful implications for the planning of similar groups. A majority indicated a desire for a less frequent meeting schedule, perhaps once a month, or every two months. It was also suggested that the meeting time be lengthened to about 2 hours in length. Although these suggestions seem reasonable, it is unclear whether the observed impact of treatment on anxiety would result if they were implemented in a future group. It may not be possible to achieve such an effect without a more intensive meeting schedule.

In conclusion, despite the limitations we have described, the results of this study suggest the potential value of a semi-structured support group intervention to meet the needs of adults at-risk for HD. We hope we have provided a preliminary framework for understanding the experience of being at-risk and for developing suitable therapeutic interventions for this population as well as other populations who are at-risk for disease.

(Continued on Page 38)

Table I Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Test Measures

		Anxiety				Depression			
		Pre		Post		Pre		Post	
	N	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	S D
Control	10	4.5	1.4	4.5	1.4	4.7	1.6	4.2	1.9
Experimental	7	4.5	3.0	3.3	2.9	3.6	2.7	2.8	2.5

SECOND CHANCE: CAREER COUNSELING FOR DROPOUT PREVENTION

by Patricia R. Wisner and Nathalie Kees, Ed.D.

Abstract

This project describes observations of eleven former dropouts enrolled in a Second Chance High School in Denver, Colorado and their responses to career counseling. The project utilized the Self-Directed Search, the Guidance Information System computerized program, and individual counseling to foster career goal setting. It was important to be systematic and cost and time efficient. Findings based on this limited sample group, while not statistically significant, are interesting and may provide insight into the varied needs of this group. The methods used could be appropriate in various educational settings to retain at-risk students and provide realistic career goal-setting.

INTRODUCTION

In previous generations, wage earners could support their families without completing high school. Economic implications for today and beyond indicate that earning power will be substantially lower for dropouts. In America's Shame, America's Hope (MDC, 1988), it was reported that 973,000 dropouts from the nation's high schools in 1981 will lose $228 billion in personal earnings over their lifetime, while society will lose $68.4 billion in taxes. Advances in technology and subsequent effects in the workplace increase the risk of failure for these youths. By the year 2000, the job market will require a work force whose median level of education is 13.5 years in order to make a livable wage (MDC, 1988). This does not mean that there will not be jobs for those who do not complete high school. The jobs projected for high school dropouts will exist and even increase but the occupations may be less desirable as long-term career choices (Hoyt, 1989).

The term "at-risk" has been derived from the 1983 publication of the National Commission on Excellence in Education's report A Nation At Risk. At-risk students have characteristics generally associated with noncompletion of graduation requirements although they have not been officially dropped from the school's membership list. The word "dropout" is most commonly used to designate any student who has left school for any number of reasons other than graduation.

DROPOUT IDENTIFICATION

The identifying characteristics of at-risk youths include: (1) being in the bottom 25 percent of the class ranking; (2) frequently failing some courses; (3) being deficient in credits for graduation; (4) lacking basic academic skills; and (5) having attitude and conduct problems in school (MDC, 1988). The National Dropout Prevention Center lists additional identifiable variables which include poor attendance, the lower educational level of parents, the number of school transfers, a non-English speaking home, lack of participation in extracurricular activities, pregnancy/teen parent, and family economic status (Wells, Bechard, & Hamby, 1988).

NATIONAL DROPOUT STATISTICS

A Government Accounting Office report concluded that about 4.3 million 16- to 24-year-olds were neither enrolled in nor graduates of a high school (Hahn, 1987). Other studies have suggested that the 1984 dropout rate for 18- to 19-year-olds was between 15.2% and 29.1% (Rumberger, 1987). In certain urban areas the rate falls within the 40% to 50% range (Barber & McClellan, 1987).

COLORADO DROPOUT STATISTICS

A great deal of discrepancy exists in the reporting of dropout rates for the State of Colorado. The Colorado State Department of Education determined the dropout rate for the 1988-89 school year to be 4.2 percent of all students in grades seven through twelve (Colorado Department of Education, Feb. 1990). This figure was for students with no record of transfer to other schools but withdrawn from a school's rolls (Jo Ann Keith, personal communication, March 5, 1991). U.S. News and World Report compiles national state-by-state dropout statistics on an annual basis. According to the June 12, 1989 issue, the dropout rate for the graduating class of 1987 in Colorado was 26.3%. A subsequent article in The Denver Post reported that one-fifth, or 20%, of 10th graders in 1987 did not graduate in 1990 (Bingham, Dec. 7, 1990). This translated to approximately 34,000 students.

The variation in these statistics was caused by the statistical method used. The Department of Education figure was for students not attending and not asking for a record transfer in a given school year. The U.S. News and World Report figure was for graduates in a given year compared to enrollment four years previous. The Denver Post report compared graduates of a given year to the class enrollment three years previous.

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STATE ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS

The Colorado State Library, Office of Library and Adult Services (1988), studied these figures to compile *The Cost of High School Dropouts to Economic Development in Colorado*. They concluded that dropouts were associated with poverty, unemployment, welfare, and lost tax revenues. The study found a direct correlation between counties with high dropout rates and higher unemployment. A $130 per capita difference in state tax revenues was found between counties with higher and lower dropout rates. It was estimated that $150 million could have been added to the 1985 tax revenues in the State of Colorado if these students had completed high school.

COLORADO SECOND CHANCE PROGRAM

Since 1986, the Colorado State Legislature has provided funding for education of youths 16 to 21 who have dropped out of high school without a diploma or equivalent certificate (Colorado HB 1383, 1986). The funding is available to districts with a dropout rate above the State Department average or that offer vocational, technical, or adult education. Funding is based on the number of students in the program. The operating district receives 85% of the state funds for program costs; the student's home district receives 10% of the state funds for processing; and the state retains 5% for administration.

In the State of Colorado, Second Chance refers to an educational program designed for open-entry, open-exit, secondary level learning centers which help students meet the requirements set forth and funded by the legislature to receive a high school diploma or GED equivalency through preparation and testing. Currently, thirteen centers are open in the following Colorado communities: Lamar, Montrose, Colorado Springs, Englewood, Ignacio, Grand Junction, Fort Morgan, Alamosa, LaJara, Denver, Cortez, Commerce City, and Collbran (Colorado Department of Education, 1989).

Since 1986, the Colorado State Legislature has provided funding for education of youths 16 to 21 who have dropped out of high school without a diploma or equivalent certificate (Colorado HB 1383, 1986).

The Colorado Legislature, through House Bill 1383, provided education for the Second Chance population with direct links to vocational and technical programs. Also, school districts throughout the country have used Carl D. Perkins Act monies to infuse such guidance activities as computerized career information systems, student assessments, career decision-making, educational information and self-understanding/values clarification (Drier, 1989). This Bill also mandated counseling of students and parents regarding needed services and monitoring student progress (Colorado HB 1381, Article 52, 1986).

SECOND CHANCE HIGH SCHOOL

This study focused on implementation of career guidance at a Second Chance High School located in Denver, Colorado. This school is operated through the Denver Public Schools and was the pilot program for HB 1383. To date, 2500 students have been served by this institution (Year End Report, 1989-1990). Presently, there are 400 students enrolled in morning, afternoon, and evening sessions which are flexible in length to accommodate student needs. There is a waiting list of approximately one year to fill each vacancy due to graduation or someone choosing to leave the program. To qualify for entrance, the youth must have been deleted from a school's roster for four months or longer and seeking a diploma or GED. They may also combine their course of study with vocational training. Students must be between the ages of 17-21, read at least on a sixth grade level, and agree to an attendance contract. Classes are self-paced and nongraded with examinations offered at regular intervals.

The primary focus of the Second Chance High School is to assist students in the completion of graduation requirements or GED requirements. The administration proposed a pilot program in career counseling to address student concerns regarding career choices and educational opportunities after graduation. A small group of students from the Second Chance program who were nearing graduation with no declared career goal were selected by staff members as participants in this pilot project.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

This project's purpose was to infuse career guidance techniques into the educational setting of former dropouts and to describe observations and responses to individualized career guidance information. Exemplary programs for at-risk students refer to elements of the programs' success that helped students establish and progress toward life career goals (Walz, 1987) and to make a connection between school subjects and making money (Mann, 1986). During the past ten years, it has been demonstrated nationally that systematically planned, accessible, and professionally delivered vocational guidance results in improved career maturity and resolves many vocational training and work related needs (Drier, 1989).

For Second Chance High School, the project was designed to be an economical and systematic approach directed at self awareness and education and occupational knowledge. The assessment tools and computerized guidance programs provided the vehicle for career maturity and goal setting.

INSTRUMENTATION

The guidance tools used for this project included John Holland's Self-Directed Search and its corresponding Occupations Finder, the Guidance Information System, a computerized guidance system, and the following publications: Dictionary of Holland Occupational Codes, Occupational Outlook Handbook, and Dictionary of Occupational Titles.

PROCEDURES

The criteria for the selected group of Second Chance students working on career goal setting were having one semester or less required for graduation and having expressed concern over lack of career direction. Of the eleven participants, seven were female and four male. Ages ranged from 17 to 20. The subject pool for this project is admittedly small and results will be interpreted accordingly.

Fifteen sessions were arranged to convene once a week for one and one-half hours. The procedures for this career counseling project included group orientation, assessment, individual analysis, and interpretation culminating with an action plan.

The interpretation of scores and choosing occupations of interest allowed each student an opportunity to generate occupational descriptions from the Guidance Information System.

ORIENTATION

Three goals of the orientation session for students in this project were: 1) to define the term interest inventory, 2) discuss how it differs from a test, and 3) to discuss job satisfaction. Discussion centered around job selection based on likes and dislikes and how an interest inventory helps define those personal strengths. Also included was an introduction to Holland's theory of job satisfaction matching personalities to similar work environments. The initial meeting also included an introduction to the computer, its use and availability, as well as the occupational information that it could provide.

ASSESSMENT

The ten original participants completed the SDS as a group in 25 to 50 minutes. The counselor remained in the area to assist with any interpretation, occupational definitions, or explanations. It was important to emphasize in the Self-Estimates section that self ratings of individual abilities be compared to peers. All students calculated subtotals as they progressed through the assessment and transferred their scores to the summary page. After the three highest raw scores were identified and assigned three-letter Holland codes, individual work began with the accompanying Occupational Finder booklet.

INTERPRETATION

An interpretation of each instrument was completed by the counselor prior to the next meeting. All calculations were checked to verify accuracy of raw scores and the subsequent three-letter code. Raw scores were entered into the GIS Interest Inventory in order to obtain copies of compatible occupations for each participant. Codes were analyzed to identify compatibility of aspirations (daydreams), congruency (closeness between personality and work environment), consistency (compatibility of personal and job characteristics) and differentiation (numeric difference between high and low codes). The assessment instrument and the action plan of each participant were kept in individual file folders for ease of recordkeeping.

Students met with the counselor for interpretation of the results individually or in small groups according to their availability. Interpretation was facilitated by the computerized printout of occupations from the GIS and the Occupations Finder booklet. Each student reviewed their results, checked for other appropriate code combinations (especially if the raw scores were within eight points of each other), and recorded their occupational choices in the assessment booklet. Students were also encouraged to identify the educational level in the Occupations Finder for each occupation of interest. This process stimulated discussion concerning work satisfaction and realistic career and educational goals. Students with low degrees of congruence and consistency were encouraged to use the Dictionary of Holland Occupational Codes which lists 12,099 occupations by three-letter codes.

The interpretation of scores and choosing occupations of interest allowed each student an opportunity to generate occupational descriptions from the Guidance Information System. They were encouraged to print as many occupational descriptions as they desired and to use them for discussion with their parents.

ACTION PLAN

The counselor reviewed the future plans of each participant, including continued education, costs, location and practicality of choice. Some students used the GIS for this information while others preferred the available college catalogues.

Students moved through this procedure at varying rates. The average number of student-counselor contacts was three; the maximum was five. All participants were encouraged to discuss career goals and future plans with the counselor as often as needed.

Observations

Although the small number of participants in this project requires caution in interpreting results, initial outcomes of this pilot program provide several interesting observations. Student motivation appeared to be high as most students chose to work beyond the one and one-half hour sessions, either independently or with the counselor. An interesting observation of this group involved their attentiveness to the assessment and to the counselor. There seemed to be a genuine appreciation for information in the area of matching their personalities to appropriate work environments. At the end of the first session, the students competed to be first for individual interpretation. Two students asked to return together so that their needs could be met simultaneously. Group time was changed to begin 15 minutes early because interest of current participants was high and other students were beginning to self refer.

Outcomes specific to the assessment devices provided other interesting observations. Compared to the distribution of codes for high-school students in the SDS Professional Manual, these high-risk students scored higher percentages of social codes than the population of 4,616. Table 8 of the Professional Manual indicated 93.11% of females and 50.03% of males tested had social distributions in their code (Holland, 1985). This group of high-risk youths scored 100% social for females and 75% for males. All of the female codes and three of the four male codes included a social score.

These high social code percentages indicated that this group as a whole is affected by others. Students indicated preference for care-giving, people-oriented occupations. Interpersonally, these eleven participants appeared to be bonded. They chose to work in groups during the sessions and the interpretations. They were also aware of each other's attendance and performance throughout the entire school day.

Parenting, child care, legal and employment issues contributed to the personal circumstances facing these youths. What might appear to be an unresponsive youth population contained, in fact, very interested and attentive students.

The occupational daydreams of the participants matched their primary SDS code in nine out of eleven instances. Although no formal studies were found to show this to be the case, the author has found traditional high-school age students' occupational daydreams do not normally parallel their SDS codes so closely. This may suggest that Second Chance students, normally older than traditional high school students, may have a career maturity due to life experiences.

Tests for significance could not be performed on these scores since the sample was too small. The Chi-Square test for goodness of fit would have been the appropriate statistical test to use had the population been larger. However, data from 50 instruments and an expected frequency of at least five for each cell would have been necessary. Further research using a larger group would be appropriate (Marsha Bishop, Ph.D., personal communication, April 15, 1991).

In terms of students' utilization of the career assessment and information tools, the computerized guidance program was operated independently by all students and generated information efficiently. The interest inventory appeared to be non-threatening to this population and provided a vehicle for immediate communication with the counselor.

An interesting observation of all eleven students was their expressed interest in post-secondary education, specifically Community College of Denver and Metropolitan State College. It appeared important to these students to remain in their geographical location. Helping high risk students set realistic goals and look at the economic and academic requirements needed for post-secondary education was essential.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Although generalizability of the results of this study is limited due to the small number of subjects, several recommendations are suggested based on the initial findings. The experience with the pilot group of students at Second Chance High School leads to suggestions for counselors and administrators working with high-risk students to improve their career decision-making capabilities. Improved career choices not only personally benefit these students but can also result in long-term economic benefits to the state and local economies.

Because of the additional concerns facing at-risk students, contact time for counseling should be increased to allow greater opportunities for indepth problem solving on issues involving parenting, child care, employment, legal difficulties and family relationships. Increased counselor availability would help insure continuity and further improve communication between counselor and clients.

Group counseling should be utilized more frequently to expedite dissemination of information and identify career opportunities and information. Small-group activities were the preferred method for career counseling of this Second Chance pilot group. This coincides with their social scores on the Self-Directed Search. Thus, group counseling appeared to be an effective method appealing to their desire for peer bonding in the counseling environment.

Further, it is suggested that the Self-Directed Search and a computerized guidance information system be provided in a career counseling area. Administration, length of time to complete, ease of interpretation, documented research and cost make the SDS a good choice. Guidance systems containing local labor market information are available and would be useful for youth planning to remain in the local area. Two such systems, COCIS and CHOICES, provide local labor market information. Computerized guidance systems would also encourage and support independent research by these students. Additionally, it is recommended that a career library consisting of written materials such as the Occupational Outlook Handbook, Occupational Outlook Quarterly, and post-secondary catalogues be publicized and accessible to all students.

Summary

The enthusiasm of the participants in this pilot project for Second Chance High School was evident. The needs of this at-risk population were many and varied. Parenting, child care, legal and employment issues contributed to the personal circumstances facing these youths. What might appear to be an unresponsive youth population contained, in fact, very interested and attentive students.

Counseling methods described in this report were well received in the Second Chance setting. The use of individual assessments along with computer generated information helped maintain interest of participants and several non-participants. Continued requests for participation in this project serves as a positive indicator for the program's acceptance.

The methods described in this study provide suggestions for future inquiry into best practices for working with at-risk students. The benefits of continued research in this area would reach beyond the student to the school, community, and future workforce and economy.

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CELEBRATION

(Continued from Page 26)

real life that we are free to make individual choices without being bound to fear. We make our choices attuned to how our individual choices affect others. We are willing to forgive, knowing that we too are in need of forgiveness. We celebrate true interdependence, personally knowing we are all creations of the Spirit. Many experience spiritual well-being through support groups or cell groups.

Many of the ideas for this article on developmental counseling were inspired by recent research presented by Fullbright scholar, Allen Ivey, Ph.D., University of Massachusetts School of Counseling. Dr. Ivey gives a perspective of interdependence as found in the following quotation from the Yakima National Proverb:

> *Justice and respect for the individual*
> *is a part of justice for the community.*
> *The mature person is a servant to the people*
> *because of the Master.*

With this new awareness, perhaps counselors will generate innovative approaches in the celebration for interdependence in the multicultural spiritual journeys of life.

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HUNTINGTON'S DISEASE

(Continued from pg. 32)

We are most grateful to Nancy Wexler, Ph.D. for her ongoing erudite guidance in the development of this group therapy treatment intervention. We would also like to express our gratitude to P. Michael Conneally, Ph.D., at the University of Indiana Medical School for his help in the recruitment of adults at-risk for HD for the control subjects for this study. We are thankful to Jim Oyler, Ph.D., for his part in co-leading this group therapy intervention. The statistical consultation of Peter Schouten, M.A., is also gratefully acknowledged.

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FROM THE EDITOR

My phone is buzzing tonight. I called my husband's cousin, to check on the progress of the Cappellucci family reunion, and then visited with an old friend from high school days in the small town of Claude, Texas. Moments like these are brief but refreshing, a chance for me to link with others who share common interests and know the personal me. My life is full of such connections and I value them all.

In my work as a school counselor, connections happen everyday. As I walk through the halls, the brief chat with a student or the check on a student's progress with a teacher provides a link. In the office, students will check Jin weekly, just to let me know how they're doing in a current class or at home with mom or in that new job. For students struggling with loaded personal issues, that link with a caring adult often provides a vital (connection that enables them to succeed.

For this first year as editor of AWARENESS, it too has been full of moments of connecting, gaining support in the professional area. I have had opportunities to chat with authors, called people for information, and gained experience in encouraging, saying "no" gently, and giving a bit of a nudge to get that revised article back right away. That's really what AWARENESS is all about, a chance to connect, to share information and new ideas, to gain insight, and to acknowledge people out there in the field.

I especially want to thank the ones who helped me with this Spring issue:

The authors who were willing to write articles and then revise, revise, revise;
The members of the editorial board, who made time to read another manuscript and add lots of comments;
Rich Feller, always willing to answer one more of my "how did you handle this last year" type of questions;
Ginny Berry, for being able to put me in contact with either the right person or that certain piece of information needed;
Ken Doby, for calmly saying, "don't worry, we are okay with the budget for this year;"
and finally, Susan Worthman, of Wordsworth, who did the technical part of AWARENESS.

They too have contributed to the success of this year, to the connections that link us all and give us substance.

Erratum: In the Spring 1992 issue, the name of Angela Bailey was left off as co-author of the article Feminist Family Therapy: A Cross-Cultural Critique. The journal apologizes for this omission.

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HELPING STUDENTS PREPARE FOR THE GLOBAL ECONOMY AND THE GLOBAL VILLAGE

David H. Budd

ABSTRACT

This article summarizes facts, trends, and perspectives that counselors, and their students, should keep in mind for planning careers in the new multicultural America, especially within the new world economy. A discussion of which students and workers might be appropriate candidates is followed by a summary of key considerations in the preparation for cross-cultural opportunities.

The United States is clearly becoming a "multicultural" society: persons and cultural influences of diverse origins increasingly are blending into our society, changing the fabric of school, public policy, and workplace. Demographic and economic realities, as well as trends in spheres as diverse as law and education, bear witness to our changing society. In addition, our national economic and workplace perspective needs to become increasingly "cross-cultural," recognizing the realities of shared technology, portable skills, and increasingly international markets. The new cross-cultural employment environment involves more than the stereotyped world of "multinational" business giants. Increasingly, the cross-cultural environment involves business and public sector concerns of all sizes.

For one theorist the single most important factor in career development will be "the globalization of business and the influences of foreign culture" (Hyatt, 1990, p. 26). For the career counselor, especially in high school and college environments, the import is clear: planning for jobs and careers should take into account the increasing multiculturalism in America, and above all the opportunities of the "global economy."

Whereas *multicultural* refers primarily to the infusion and blend of numerous cultural and ethnic influences into our domestic mainstream culture, *cross-cultural* refers to those interactions which leap cultural, and quite often national, boundaries. The sensitivities and communication skills needed to function successfully in the two environments are similar. Multicultural and cross-cultural phenomena are both considered in this article partly because they are not neatly separable, yet this article makes a distinction. Members of tomorrow's work force will be wise to develop broader multicultural sensitivity in order to fit more comfortably into the fabric of the new American workplace and society. The challenge of cross-cultural work, however, is the complementary side of the multicultural coin. In these settings it is the traditional American who is culturally different and who must blend into an already established cultural fabric. The balance of this article is focused on cross-cultural employment—employment in the environment of a culture foreign to the employee.

THE COMING MULTICULTURAL AND CROSS-CULTURAL WORKPLACE

Like most social and economic change, the signs are everywhere. One subtle early sign has been the bilingual labeling of household products and appliances, a harbinger, no doubt, of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). The multiculturalism of bellwether California is astounding with its Pacific Rim populations, the teaching of over 70 languages in its secondary school systems, and the existence of one of the largest Spanish-speaking cities in North America, greater Los Angeles. All these phenomena may portend national demographic trends of some relevance the job seeker of tomorrow.

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Cross-cultural and overseas work opportunities for Americans are clearly expanding.

The multicultural work force of the future is unlikely to exhibit the complacence of historical immigrant work forces, but is likely instead to be characterized by an insistence by many workers that their cultural and linguistic traditions be recognized and respected. Indeed, a work force increasingly female and non-Anglo in background and orientation parallels trends in other spheres of society, including the educational movement to bring multiculturalism to the classroom at all levels of schooling and the continued unfolding of legal rights for women and minorities. The culturally homogeneous American workplace of the last 50 years is gradually giving way to the multicultural workplace.

The changing composition of the workplace is only one reason why preparation for the world of work should be multiculturally oriented. Minority and foreign ownership of domestic business is increasing (Badarocco, 1991) and thus the employers themselves may bring expectations of multicultural sensitivity to the workplace. The phenomenon called the "globalization or the world's economy" continues unabated. The European Economic Community represents an unprecedented opening of national frontiers to the free movement of commodities and workers, while in this hemisphere NAFTA clearly suggests more Canadians, Americans, and Mexicans will do business on a regular basis (Baer, 1991; Holzinger, 1991). The implication is that significant numbers of future job opportunities, especially for workers in specific trades and skilled employment, may be within another culture or organizations owned by foreign entities.

The counselor who prepares high school- and college-age clientele for the realities of work may be guided by the following realizations concerning the coming multicultural workplace and global economy:

- Although the changes are gradual, the multicultural workplace in the United States is becoming a reality, with consequent implications for several dimensions of the work environment.
- Students and workers who, by ethnic or cultural background, would be considered non-traditional should be encouraged to see the value of their heritage, both culturally and economically. In a striking example, many second-generation Hispanic-Americans have lost familiarity with the Spanish language at a time when bilingual employees are in ever-greater demand.
- Workers who, by background, would be considered traditional and mainstream would be well advised to develop broad sensitivity to multicultural perspectives in order to fit better into the new workplace. Educational theorists have long embraced multicultural exposure as part of the classic liberal education. Now they further endorse multiculturalism for practical career reasons (Schaefer, 1990).
- Cross-cultural and overseas work opportunities for Americans are clearly expanding (Fontaine, 1989; Krannich & Krannich, 1990). While such opportunities are highly job-specific (Badarocco, 1991) and are clearly not for every personality type or life situation, planning for careers should take the coming global economy into account.
- Counselors and their students should realize that developing cross-cultural awareness may have career utility in a wide variety of circumstances and job situations. For example, the marketing student who can simultaneously think in terms of U.S., Canadian, and Mexican marketing realities may have a more promising career.
- Preparation for the range of opportunities in the new global economy includes both the obvious, such as learning foreign languages and cultural geography, as well as the subtle task of learning about one's ability to adapt to the culturally unfamiliar—in essence, learning about oneself. The skill and knowledge of counselors are especially critical here.

WHO SHOULD CONSIDER PREPARATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ASSIGNMENTS?

In 19th and early 20th century England a young man of the educated class would finish his studies and then polish his education by a year's travel through the cradles of civilization, The Grand Tour. Fortunately, it is no longer only the Anglo, male aristocrat who enjoys educationally broadening opportunities across national and cultural frontiers. A full menu of opportunities at the college and secondary levels now exists, and they are designed to be approachable and affordable. Cross-cultural travel and exposure have positive implications for a worker's employment in the global work force, while, in turn, cross-cultural employment experiences are likely to further develop and round out the individual.

While cross-cultural experience might appear to have almost universal validity the counseling considerations are quite individual. More focused questions thus emerge: What types of students should be especially encouraged to pursue cross-cultural opportunities and what considerations should their counselors guide them to evaluate and weigh?

- Strong domestic job growth will be paralleled by international demand for skilled and semi-skilled workers, especially in health care, telecommunications, and computers (Kaplan, 1991). Students headed for scientific and technical careers have professional skills of relevance in almost any culture. Ironically, they are often less likely than humanities and social sciences students to study other cultures and apply themselves to foreign languages. Counseling can be critical to their awareness.
- The international portability of technical careers should not imply that other fields are poorly situated for cross-cultural opportunity. For example, the future may well hold stronger cross-cultural opportunities than ever in education, largely because of a worldwide demand for English language education (Krannich & Krannich, 1990).
- Students headed for business careers would benefit from greater cross-cultural exposure. In large multinational organizations the benefits of such experiences to employees is obvious; much less publicized is the *cross-cultural entrepreneuring boom*, a function of the overall thrust of small business development in concert with the fall of trade barriers. (The collapse of the Soviet empire alone has virtually doubled the size of the approachable world market.)
- Carving out cross-cultural employment niches is sometimes the ultimate in business acumen; it calls upon the same imagination, persistence in the face of frustration, ability to combine personal and material resources, and skill at negotiating consensus (Moran, Harris, 1982; Krannich & Krannich, 1990). The creative personality, as well as the entrepreneurial, often finds deep satisfaction in crossing cultural boundaries. A related client category might be the "multipotentialed," those students with myriad skills and interests who easily feel bored or confined by overspecialized work roles (Pask-McCartney & Salamone, 1988).
- While cross-cultural experiences have huge potential benefits, problems should not be underestimated. Keeping in mind two major stressors, job change and personal relocation, the career counselor must remember that cross-cultural assignments, especially long-term overseas assignments, involve stressors at high magnitude. For good reason, the change from familiar surroundings, folkways, and habits to the new and unfamiliar has long been called "culture shock" (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989).
- Given that some level of stress is the inevitable result of cross-cultural encounter, students with poor ego strength or adjustment problems are not likely candidates unless strong support structures, such as families, would be available. While the cross-cultural experience has great potential as a catalyst for personal growth, the caveat still holds. Many a savvy corporate personnel officer looking for ways to lower the rate of failed, and thus costly, overseas assignments would be wise to investigate support structures.
- For students of any age, ego strength and adaptability are likely to be significant indicators of readiness for cross-cultural experiences. Additionally, some threshold level of openness to differing cultural outlooks is key (Ferguson, 1988; Stori, 1990).
- Students in high school or just beginning college are prime for absorbing cross-cultural experiences and learning other languages. However, other priorities drive most youths and they may also have little sense of future direction and little encouragement in the direction of international exploration. Counselors can offer youths some sense of vision and purpose for cross-cultural exploration, as well as the knowledge their opportunities may never again be as inexpensive, or as timely.

The creative personality often finds deep satisfaction in crossing cultural boundaries.

HOW TO HELP STUDENTS PLAN FOR THE COMING GLOBAL ECONOMY

The "best" career decisions are not made in a vacuum apart from a host of competing considerations. The sphere of career planning which embraces cross-cultural considerations, moreover, is characterized by a number of subtle dimensions. For example, the wisdom of and means for preparing to enter the world economy and job market may be difficult for young students to visualize and conceptualize. While they can visualize the essence of most work and life scenarios in their native country, they will be unable, almost by definition, to visualize scenarios beyond their cultural experience. A leap of faith is required for students to place themselves in a wholly different setting of life and work. Additionally, the capacity for deferred gratification may be required for some key element of preparation. For example, the learning of another language often requires a period of time before the return on investment of effort is experienced. In addition, the relatively precise planning possible with many traditional careers may be unrealistic for those conducting their job search in the world market. Who yet knows what the demand for a bachelor's degree in construction management is going to be in the "new" Russia, or what the pay, in rubles, will really be worth? The "tolerance for ambiguity" often mentioned as an asset in the new domestic service economy may be a requirement in a global economy (Callahan, 1989; Carter, 1989).

Opportunities to sample international environments are available and affordable.

Some fundamental guideposts and strategies are available to counselors, however, for helping students prepare for cross-cultural opportunities. Some key considerations are:

- There are no precise equivalents of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* for information on the worldwide job market, but source books brimming with leads, statistics, and suggestions are available. One practical test of readiness for complexities of cross-cultural work may be found in students' abilities to research both the employment and cultural dimensions of potential opportunities.
- While reading or hearing about experiences is hardly the experiences themselves, powerful books such as *Working* by Studs Terkel (1972) evoke the feel of work experiences. Students can be encouraged to do the legwork that Terkel did and conduct their own interviews. People within every major community who are involved in international work can provide expertise to students.
- Opportunities to sample many international environments for short periods are available and affordable. The literature suggests that a minimum of two weeks in a location is needed to gain a realistic perspective (Isaacson, 1985). One excellent source, *Council on International Educational Exchange* (1991), that exists for youths includes myriad leads as well as experiences of participants.
- Students should be aware of advertisements for catalogues of international jobs and similar shortcuts. The road to good cross-cultural jobs is an extended version of the traditional one: hard work in acquiring a portfolio of desirable skills and relevant professional contacts (Win, 1987; Krannich & Krannich, 1990).
- As hard as it may be to do traditional, "straight line" planning for cross-cultural careers, the articulation of potential scenarios (whether in the form of probability estimation exercises, future forecasts, decision trees, or the like) is an excellent focusing device. It can also serve as productive "guided fantasy" for visualizing cross-cultural futures.
- The potential benefits and problems of cross-cultural opportunities are often of a magnitude to defy the normal weighting of plus and minus factors. Students will have to arrive at a decision of whether, and when, to take the plunge. For decisions of such life-changing import there may be no "best time."

CONCLUSION

Cross-cultural work and life experiences will no longer be the province of the business elite but will touch the lives of increasing numbers of Americans. In addition, a more multicultural America appears here to stay. Counselors can play an important role in helping their students prepare proactively for the culturally changing workplace and the global economy.

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GUIDED IMAGERY IN A GROUP SETTING: A MODEL

Sydney S. Heflin

ABSTRACT

This article presents a hands-on model for the counselor who wishes to explore the use of guided imagery in a group setting. The counselor is guided through a progressive series of ten instruction steps.

Guided imagery is often neglected as a powerful and useful tool in the group therapy setting. While more generally used in individual therapy, guided imagery can be uniquely effective within the group structure since, as noted by Corey (1985), the group can function as a microcosm of life, providing both counselor and members with opportunities to evaluate the process through observations of members.

Often referred to as creative visualization (Heflin, 1991), guided imagery is actually a trance state, the depth of which may vary, and is viewed by some as a form of hypnosis. Weitzenhoffer (1986) noted that in order to "hypnotize" an individual a situation is created which is conducive to the development of a suggestion state, and the "hypnotized" person is one in such a state. Other interchangeable terms for hypnosis are given by Udolf (1987), including an altered state of consciousness, a state of heightened suggestibility, or a trance.

Before attempting to use any type of trance state in the counseling setting it is important that the counselor secure the professional training and certification necessary to attain an appropriate level of competence. University courses, seminars, workshops, and mentoring are ways of obtaining training. The counselor must also achieve a reasonable degree of skill and confidence before attempting to incorporate guided imagery into group counseling.

Although some controversy still does exist among experts in the field, most emphasize that hypnosis is safe. Rarely does one hear of adverse consequences (Zahourek, 1990). Hypnosis also lends itself to group work (Gabian & Manus, 1986). Haley (1986) noted that Milton Erickson, long known as the world's leading medical hypnotist, had such great success with his use of trance states because he was always respectful of clients and encouraged their participation in their own process. Erickson used hypnosis in an infinite variety of ways in therapy, and his strategic therapy (Haley, 1986) proved to be a logical extension of hypnotic technique while his use of metaphor directly influenced guided imagery (Rosen, 1982; Lankton & Lankton, 1989). Wester (1986) emphasized that it is also important to remember that any technique can be only as effective as the therapist using that particular skill.

Obviously, the counselor must adhere to the usual cautions about using trance states only with appropriate personalities and in appropriate therapeutic settings (Udolf, 1987). In her discussion of the selection of appropriate patients for hypnosis, Zahourek (1990) observes that hypnosis is not usually recommended for clients who are psychotic, severely borderline, depressed, suicidal, or in marginal control. It is imperative that individuals with specific medical conditions be either screened out or monitored by their physicians. However, the techniques are widely considered quite safe, provided reasonable screening precautions are taken (Zahourek, 1990). The counselor must carefully evaluate the group, taking into consideration each client's stability before proceeding with disassociative techniques.

Once it has been established that a particular group is appropriate and will benefit from guided imagery, the therapist can begin to design a specific exercise suited to the needs of the group. Since there are so many strategies in guided imagery (Haley, 1967)—from the simplest, such as presented in this article, to the most complicated, such as some of the advanced forms of healing imagery used for work with cancer, burn victims, or incest survivors (Rossi & Cheek, 1988; Rossman, 1989)—, it is suggested that relatively short, simple exercises be selected in the beginning. As the counselor's confidence and skills increase with each successful guided imagery exercise it becomes natural to study and gradually progress to the use of more difficult strategies. Initially, the counselor should work under the supervision of a mentor in a co-therapy construct. This provides modeling, as well as a degree of security for the counselor in the early stages of incorporating imagery into the group process.

It is paramount that the counselor be acutely aware of four factors in structuring guided imagery for a group. First, the type of group should be considered: Does the group issue have a physiological basis, a psychological basis, or both?

Second, there must be a purpose or goal for the exercise that is compatible with either the physiological or psychological issue being processed. In planning a therapeutic strategy the therapist needs to consider what the imagery is to accomplish. There are many purposes, such as relaxation for stress (Sachs, 1986), health and healing for illness, accessing inner levels of creativity for work or play, and releasing mental blocks of various types (Sheikh, 1983; Samuels & Samuels, 1975). Once the goal of the therapeutic imagery is established, the counselor can either choose an existing script or begin to structure an appropriate exercise best suited to accomplishing that end. Here it should be noted that structuring a script is a very precise procedure, which is sometimes complicated, and should be done only by individuals with the appropriate expertise. It is important that the novice use tested scripts to avoid potential problems. There are scripts available in the literature, and most quality training programs include some as well.

With a little creativity, the counselor can achieve a series of group-specific goals.

Third, the group must be comfortable with the idea of using guided imagery as a component of therapeutic work. The responsible counselor informs and instructs the group in a positive, constructive manner, helps the members attain a reasonable degree of comfort and motivation for the technique, and always allows members to choose not to participate.

Finally, the counselor, once trained in imagery skills and techniques, ought to be comfortable with using guided imagery in a group setting. Group members are quick to sense discomfort or anxiety on the part of the counselor, and this naturally can exacerbate any anxiety they might have about participating (Corey, 1985).

A GUIDED IMAGERY MODEL

The following is a model for incorporating a guided imagery (i.e., creative visualization) exercise into a personal growth group. The exercise involves personal exploration, designed to assist each individual in establishing an outcome goal (or goals) related to desired personal growth.

While this exercise is formulated for a personal growth group, it may be adapted by the counselor who is experienced in guided imagery for use in other types of groups and for other therapeutic outcomes. In addition, with a little creativity, the experienced counselor can expand on the basic structure of the exercise in subsequent sessions to achieve a series of group-specific goals. The remainder of this article presents ten guidelines for implementing this technique.

GUIDELINES

1. Settling in

The counselor directs the group members to make themselves physically comfortable without crossing any limbs (to avoid interference with circulation) and to assume a position wherein the head will not drop suddenly when the muscles relax.

2. Music

Soft, gentle music may be utilized as a relaxation tool, as well as a masking device designed to help the group members block out movement and sound from the others in the group. It is a good idea to use instrumental music that is not readily identifiable, in order to avoid the potential of projection wherein unconscious processes might interfere with the purpose of the exercise.

3. Deep Breathing

Deep breathing instructions are given. The group is directed to completely fill the lungs with air on the inhalation, and to push as much air as possible out on the exhalation. This activity continues for approximately three to five minutes, or until the therapist observes that the group is fairly relaxed and settled. The therapist can expect that mild resistance usually appears in the form of physical shifting, coughing, sneezing, etc. as the group focuses inward. This is perfectly natural and should be accepted. If one individual should become so disruptive as to disturb the group at length, the counselor should be prepared to deal with this.

4. Focused Body Relaxation

The counselor takes the group through a progressive body relaxation exercise of choice. An example of such a script follows:

"You can now feel the warm, soothing, relaxing power coming into the toes of both your feet at the same time, relaxing your toes. Feel your toes relaxing, and feel that relaxation as it flows down into the arches and into the heels, relaxing all of the muscles as it goes. Now you can feel that warm, soothing, relaxing power as it moves up through your ankles and into the calves of your legs, relaxing all of those muscles, moving up through your knees and into your thighs, and you can feel all of those muscles just letting go now so that your toes and feet and ankles and calves and knees and thighs are completely relaxed."

"Now you can feel that warm, soothing, relaxing power as it comes into the fingers of both your hands at the same time, relaxing your hands. Feel your hands relaxing and feel that relaxing power as it moves up through your wrists, into your forearms, and right on up through your elbows into your upper arms so that your fingers and hands and forearms and upper arms are completely relaxed."

"Now you can feel that warm, soothing, relaxing power as it comes into the base of your spine. Feel that warmth at the base of your spine as it comes in and begins to move slowly up the spine, up the spine, up the spine and into the back of your neck and shoulder muscles. And the back of your neck and your shoulder muscles are just letting go now, letting go, as that warm, relaxing power moves on up your neck and into your scalp, relaxing your scalp. Feel your scalp relaxing, and feel that warm relaxation draining down into your facial muscles, relaxing all of those muscles as it goes. Your forehead is relaxed now. Your cheeks are relaxed. Your mouth is relaxed now, and your jaw is relaxed, leaving just a little space between the teeth. Your throat is relaxed."

"You are now relaxed all over, in every way. You are feeling comfortable and at ease, both in body and mind."

Creative visualization involves exploration designed to establish goals for personal growth.

5. Creating a Special Place

The therapist uses guided imagery directed specifically to assist each individual in creating a "special place." The purpose of this part of the exercise is to help the group members establish an on-going mental resource which can be used in a wide variety of ways in this and future exercises. Each group member's "special place" is an imaginary place, incorporating whatever elements the individual wishes. For the purposes of the stress reduction part of this exercise, the special place is simply a mental and physical sanctuary—a place of relaxation—far away from the cares and worries of the day-to-day world. The therapist may offer gentle suggestions, such as *"You may wish to create your sanctuary in a very special place indoors, or perhaps out in nature in a very peaceful, wonderful place. It could be a meadow in the mountains, a serene forest, a tranquil beach by the sea, or wherever your imagination chooses to take you. You can even create your special place in a wonderful crystal castle in the clouds."* The more latitude the participants have in using their imaginations greatly increases comfort levels.

After guiding the group through basic instructions on how to create their special places, the therapist will find it appropriate to suggest that they can now proceed to create their sanctuary while the therapist is quiet for a time. (Generally, about five minutes is adequate for the construction period.) At this point the counselor can guide the group through some feeling imagery, e.g.,

> *"And now you can actually feel the wonderful serenity and tranquility of your special place. Notice the comfortable sensations in your body and mind as you just relax completely and let go... being totally in the moment... Such wonderful feelings of peace... calmness... quiet... serenity... comfort... tranquility."*

The length of this part of the exercise is left up to the discretion of the counselor. Since this is the actual imagery for releasing stress, it is generally considered therapeutically sound to continue in this mode for about five to ten minutes (Rossman, 1989).

6. Establishing a Goal

The counselor now becomes more directive, gently and soothingly announcing that it is now time to begin to establish a personal goal, and then moves forward into this part of the exercise. For example, the counselor may say,

> *"Notice how much more easily you can access deeper levels of creativity now... As you move into those much deeper levels of creativity... you can begin to access a strong awareness of your own personal needs... And as you begin to examine these needs, you notice that some needs are stronger than others... and as this becomes clear... it may be that one will stand out above the rest... As you find yourself getting in touch with that very special need... it is easy to understand... and appreciate... yourself...., and honor... yourself... and that need...., and begin to create a goal to take care of that very special need...., a specific, purposeful goal... which is meaningful to you... and productive... As that specific, meaningful, purposeful goal becomes clear to you... it is easy to understand what is necessary to achieve that goal...., as simple as step one, step two, step three... Now I will be quiet for a time as you focus on exactly what you need to achieve your goal."*

Again, the counselor allows about five minutes or so of silence for the group to continue their work.

7. Returning to Conscious Awareness

At this point, the counselor assures the group that they can always go back to their "special place" and use it whenever they wish. Then, announcing *"In a moment I am going to bring you back, feeling so good, and remembering everything. I am going to count from one to five and one the count of five, very gently, taking your time, you can open your eyes and be here with me,"* the counselor proceeds with the count-up, interjecting positive suggestions on each count. A suggested count-up might be: *"Number one, notice the sensations returning to your arms and legs; number two, come up a little more, feeling so wonderfully relaxed and at ease; number three, feel at peace; number four, recall your surroundings and feel very, very good, and on the next count you can open your eyes and be here with me; number five, wide awake."*

8. Re-entry

Allow plenty of time for the group members to "re-enter" the situation. They will be integrating the material they accessed, and some may be very deep into themselves. It is good for the counselor to suggest that they make notes on their experience and allow a time of silence, with the music continuing to play softly while they do this. They also may need to stretch physically and move around a bit.

9. Debriefing

At this point, those who wish can share and process their experiences in the group. Some members will want to share and some may not. It is important to respect each member's wishes. If something intensely personal has come up for a member who chooses not to share, the counselor must not force sharing in front of the group, but can simply be warm, accepting, and encouraging of the person. After returning the focus to someone who does want to share, the first person can be given the option of processing privately with the counselor at a later time. *Crucial:* If someone has had an uncomfortable experience, the counselor will want to reassure them and to process the experience, either in the group or, if the person wishes, later on an individual basis.

10. Closure

Once processing has been completed, the counselor may proceed with bringing the group to closure in whatever manner is desired. A group feeling check is very important after imagery exercises to be certain that all members are closed down and ready to re-enter the outside world. Because closure is crucial after imagery exercises, the counselor must always allow plenty of time for it when planning the session.

CONCLUSION

Many clinical and non-clinical, in-patient and out-patient applications of hypnosis and guided imagery exist. They are used successfully every day in such areas as stress and coping, pain control, anesthesia, obstetrics and gynecology, weight loss, smoking cessation, alcoholism, hypertension, death and dying, and psychotherapy. Therapeutic change, both subtle and dramatic, can be accomplished with the use of group guided imagery. It is a valuable tool, well worth adding to the group counselor's repertoire.

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SCHOOL COUNSELORS: CHANGE AGENTS IN A MULTICULTURAL WORLD

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ABSTRACT

As the school population in the United States becomes more racially and ethnically diverse, the need for educational and therapeutic interventions that are culturally relevant is growing. This article suggests four roles for school counselors that may assist in overcoming limitations of Western-based therapy and provide alternatives for more culturally sensitive interventions.

The United States has been witnessing a dramatic change in the cultural diversity of our population. Minority children and adolescents represent the most rapidly growing portion of that population (Gibbs & Huang, 1989). A study conducted by the College Board and the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education estimated that one-third of U.S. public school students will be from minority groups by 1995 (Staff, 1991). The U. S. Bureau of the Census (1987) has reported that non-white youth under the age of 18 will constitute 30% of the nation's population by the year 2000 and 38% by the year 2020.

Minority children and adolescents are particularly at risk for psychological disorders and behavioral problems due to their frequent position at the bottom of the economic and social order (Ho, 1992; Gibbs & Huang, 1989). Congressman George Miller (1989) stated that half of all black children and one-third of all Hispanic children live in poverty. School drop-out rates for minority youth are reaching distressing levels with rates of more than 60% in some urban areas.

Ozawa (1986) labeled the population trends a "demographic imperative" and challenged social institutions that serve minority youth to modify their white middle-class orientation. As the population of minority youth increases it becomes clear that there is a need for educational and therapeutic interventions that are culturally relevant to this population.

Ho stated (1992) that school is second in importance, after the influence of the family, to the socialization of children and adolescents. School is also where many minority children first experience cultural conflict and behavioral adjustment problems.

The school counselor can play an active and vital role in bridging the gap between meeting the needs of minority groups and the existing educational system (Cole, Thomas, & Lee, 1988). The school counseling profession would move in a positive direction by reevaluating existing counselor roles and by developing interventions that are sensitive to minority youths' social realities. Making changes in a counseling program is like living in a house that is being remodeled (Hargens & Gysbers, 1984): Remodeling occurs because something is outdated or no longer meets the need for which it was constructed (Lehmanowsky, 1991).

PROFESSIONAL ROLES

The purpose of this paper is to propose several roles for school counselors to consider when working with culturally diverse students. These roles often necessitate spending more time working out of the office. This provides more opportunities to understand external barriers that may be contributing to negative self-concepts, low academic performance, and stress of minority students. The counseling profession tends to overlook the fact that minority individuals are victims of oppression and discrimination and thus negates the effects of these external barriers that limit opportunities

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and negatively affect normal development and mental health (Ho, 1992; Sue & Sue, 1990). Case studies will be provided as examples of how the school counselor can function in each of these roles.

Although one counselor may not be able to fulfill these various roles, it is essential to recognize the importance of these functions and the need to work in multiple contexts (Gibbs & Huang, 1989).

Atkinson, Morten, and Sue (1993) suggest several roles that may assist in overcoming limitations of Western-based therapy and provide school counselors with culturally sensitive interventions alternatives. The roles discussed are: (1) facilitator of self-help, (2) outreach role, (3) consultant role, and (4) change agent/advocate role.

FACILITATOR OF SELF-HELP

For many minority clients, problems are often environmental in nature rather than intrapsychic (Katz, 1985). Since many minority youth reside in urban areas, they are living in the midst of what has been called social stress, inner city stress, and environmental stress (Brounstein, Hatry, Altschuler, & Blair, 1990; Smith, 1985). Multiple stressors threaten self-esteem and can lead to handling stress by self-destructive behaviors such as alcohol and drug abuse, suicide, and homicide (Stiffman & Davis, 1990).

The school counselor can become a facilitator of self-help by assisting the client with identifying the external sources of their problem and developing strategies for resolution (Atkinson et al., 1993). Hence, the client is not encouraged to own the problem but become aware of the external oppressive forces that created it. The counselor can assist the client by (a) teaching new coping strategies, (b) having the client experience success, and (c) validating who and what they represent (Sue & Sue, 1991).

The case study of Tanya exemplifies the counselor's role as facilitator. Tanya is a black female who has recently moved to a new community and now attends a predominantly white high school. Tanya's grades have dropped since attending the new school. She has withdrawn from school activities and appears depressed. Her teachers report that she is argumentative, disrespectful, and disruptive in class.

The school counselor working with Tanya will be exploring the issues of being a new student, but also must examine the stress of visibly being a minority in school (Smith, 1985). Tanya may also be experiencing overt and/or covert acts of racism and discrimination that are contributing to her behavior.

The following questions may assist the counselor with identifying external sources of the problem (Sue & Sue, 1990): (1) What must it be like for a minority in a predominantly white school? (2) How does belonging to this racial group affect the nature and frequency of potentially stressful life events? (3) What are some of the sources of stress that Tanya might be encountering? (4) What might the school do that would benefit racial diversity.

To develop a trusting relationship with Tanya it is imperative to address the issue of racism in the school and Tanya's perception of what has been happening. By seeing the world through Tanya's eyes, the counselor can try to answer the previous questions and explore with Tanya ways of coping in a multicultural world. To deal with feelings of isolation, a support group for new students could be formed. Tanya might also be interested in forming a black students group that would be involved in cultural awareness and assist with school projects. Finally, the school can continue to eliminate racism through culturally sensitive curriculum, cultural events, and workshops.

> Several roles provide understanding of barriers contributing to negative self-concept, low academic performance, and stress.

OUTREACH ROLE

The outreach role extends a counselor's helping efforts outside the office and sometimes outside of the school. According to Kurpius and Rozecki (1992), outreach is a term for all services that are not traditional one-on-one or group counseling focused. Outreach focuses on the causes of problems and the solutions for addressing those situations. Individual, group, and/or family counseling may contradict the cultural values and individual preferences of a minority youth (Mizo & Delaney, 1981). To establish rapport and credibility it may be useful for the school counselor to meet on students' home ground. For example, becoming involved in athletic, community, and social activities can facilitate a trusting relationship that is often difficult to establish in the formality of an office.

Grevious (1985) suggests that outreach include a home visit, which traditionally has been done by social workers, to help the counselor better understand the cultural experience of the student and observe the environmental factors that may be contributing to problems. Multicultural counseling literature (Atkinson et al., 1993; Ho, 1992; Sue & Sue, 1990) often recommends home visits as a means of intervention. However, with time constraints due to large caseloads, peripheral duties, limited clerical assistance, and possible liability issues (Downing & Harrison, 1992), home visits generally are not feasible.

Outreach in action can be seen in the work with Peter Chan. Peter is referred to the school counselor by his teacher because he does not contribute in class, will not raise his hand to answer questions, and seems afraid to look at the teacher. The teacher is concerned that his introverted behavior will cause him to fall behind in school. The school counselor decides that a group experience may help Peter be more assertive. After several sessions there is no behavioral change. The counselor decides that more cultural information is necessary, not only to better understand Peter's world view but to assist with the adjustment of other Asian students coming into the school.

The community has an Asian center that assists immigrants with transition to the United States. The counselor attends a workshop at the center to acquire more understanding of the Asian culture. By being an observer as well as participant, the counselor is provided considerable insight into traditional Asian behavior. The more reserved, formal, and quiet demeanor of the workshop participants helped the counselor to understand that the behavior Peter exhibited are typical of traditional Chinese. Out of respect, one does not look into the eyes of an authority figure. It is impolite to "stand out in the crowd," hence Peter does not raise his hand in class or publicly express his knowledge. This direct observation of environmental and cultural factors enables the counselor to understand the norms of Peter's culture and reassure the teacher that Peter's behavior is culturally appropriate.

CONSULTANT ROLE

According to Hansen, Himes, and Meier (1990), consultation involves a relationship between the consultant and the consultee, who work together to affect the behavior of a third party. In this role the school counselor will be working directly with teachers, administrators, parents, and peers who have an impact on the student (Erchul & Conoley, 1991; Kurpius & Rozecki, 1992).

A common situation involves a teacher enlisting the school counselor to assist with a behavior problem in the classroom. For example, a teacher is concerned about Ron, an American Indian student in her class who is very quiet, passive, and rarely participates in class. The child refuses to participate in a class exercise that stresses competing with other classmates for points. Feeling very frustrated, the teacher calls on the school counselor to observe Ron and provide suggestions to improve his class participation and involvement. As a consultant, the counselor is to assess the problem and begin searching for solutions.

In assessing the classroom situation the following questions can be addressed (Sue & Sue, 1990): (1) What effect does being one of the few minorities in the class, or possibly the only minority, have on this child? (2) What is the teacher's attitude about this child in her class? (3) Should the teacher adapt her teaching style to meet the cultural values of the child? (4) Is the system in need of change or the child?

In this case it may be important to also consult with Ron's parents. An informal meeting may assist the counselor to understand the behavior norms of this family. The child may be exhibiting traditional American Indian values of cooperation, subtle and indirect communication style, respect for authority, and harmony with others (Courtney, 1986). The counselor can then pass on this information to the teacher and offer suggestions regarding teaching styles and class exercises that may be more culturally sensitive.

CHANGE AGENT AND ADVOCACY ROLES

When oppression, discrimination, and/or racism are identified as the cause of a client's problem rather than the problem being intrapsychic, the counselor can become a change agent and an advocate by actively challenging long-standing beliefs, stereotypes, and preconceived notions that may stand in the way of a student's healthy development (Lee, 1982). The school counselor can also help students empower themselves in the fight against negative forces (Lee, 1989).

A study by Rosenfeld, Chess, and Wilson (1981) demonstrated ethnic composition and students' attitudes toward each other. Perceptions of ethnicity may affect a child's achievement at school. Hence, if the child's school environment is safe it facilitates learning and personal growth. However, if the school atmosphere is hostile a child's learning and social development will be hampered (Ho, 1992).

Stereotyped impressions of minority groups on the part of teachers and staff can also affect a student's attitude, behavior, and performance. For example, over the past year a school counselor has received

Challenging long-standing beliefs, stereotypes, and preconceived notions clears the way for healthy development.

several complaints from some of the Asian students concerning teacher expectations of their academic performance. It seems that the stereotypical notion of Asian students as "whiz kids" and a "model minority" is placing undue stress on these particular students. In addition, they feel pressured by students who seek them out solely for answers or assistance with homework assignments. They often feel lonely and isolated from the general student population; their sense of "differentness" is causing them a great deal of anxiety.

The school counselor can provide support and encouragement by confronting stereotypical attitudes and behaviors. The counselor can spend time developing programs or enlisting outside consultants to provide multicultural awareness and sensitivity training for all students and staff. The counselor can begin to bring about change by providing a program of cultural awareness that deals with discrepancies between myths and realities (Katz & Ivey, 1977). The counselor can also work with other staff and students to develop a school-wide action plan to combat personal and institutional racism.

CONCLUSION

This article has presented a discussion of four alternative roles for school counselors to consider when working with students culturally different from themselves. The article emphasized the changing demographics of our schools and the need to re-examine existing school counseling programs to provide culturally appropriate interventions. School counselors have specialized knowledge and skills that place them in an advantageous position for fulfilling the roles just discussed. They are problem-solvers, communicators, negotiators, and collaborators. By virtue of these assets, school counselors can facilitate change via these roles. They can step into the student's world, which may enhance the counselor-student relationship. School counselors can foster the academic environment by placing an emphasis on each student's uniqueness and not on conformity with the majority.

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REACTIONS OF COUNSELOR EDUCATION STUDENTS TO THE FAMILY THERAPY SYSTEMS PARADIGM

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ABSTRACT

In order to investigate students' reactions to the systems paradigm in a graduate introductory marriage and family counseling course in an academic setting, a questionnaire was administered before and after a one-semester training program. No conceptual shift from an intrapsychic to an interpersonal view occurred however, feelings of intimidation decreased while confidence levels increased significantly during the training. Reactions to the systems paradigm were generally positive and enthusiastic, but concerns emerged. Implications for training are provided.

If progress in science occurs in discontinuous leaps following the recognition of anomalies and crises as stated by Thomas Kuhn (1970), can the systems paradigm and the intrapsychic view be integrated into peaceful coexistence or are they indeed competing paradigms in the scientific community? The pioneers of family therapy were certainly people of vision who suddenly went beyond the paradigms of traditional science in adopting general systems theory as their theoretical rationale (Becvar & Becvar, 1988; Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1990; Haley, 1984; Minuchin, 1974; Nichols, 1984). Whether the systems paradigm is an anomaly, a competing paradigm, or a scientific discovery remains to be seen. However, the more pertinent and pragmatic question seems to be how family therapy trainees are affected when encountering the systems paradigm for the first time in their training. While it is clear that marriage and family therapy is being integrated into counselor education departments (Peltier & Vale, 1986; Piercy & Hovestadt, 1980), little has been written about student reactions to this so-called "new epistemology" (Gurman, 1983). The literature generally cites student resistance to learning family therapy is due to the "perceptual shift" or "conceptual leap" required to change from the intrapsychic to the systemic view; others refer to the "schism" in the field of mental health in general, as well as within the field of family therapy itself (Breunlin, Schwartz, Krause, & Selby, 1983; Falicov, Constantine, & Breunlin, 1981; Garfield, 1979; Green & Saeger, 1982; Lawson & Gaushell, 1988; Liddle, 1978; Liddle & Saba, 1982; Murphy, 1990; Piercy & Sprenkle, 1984; West, 1988).

METHODOLOGY

This paper will consider graduate students' reactions to a systemic conceptualization of etiology and pathology in an introductory marriage and family counseling course in an academic setting. A feedback questionnaire was designed and administered to a small seminar of eleven graduate students at the University of Colorado at Denver shortly after the beginning of the semester and again at the end of the semester. Two students did not complete pretests and one student did not complete the posttest. The statistical analysis included only data from students who had completed both the pretest and posttest. Strategic and structural orientations to family therapy were presented by the professor and students read original works of pioneers of these approaches (Haley, 1984; Minuchin, 1974). Course requirements included a midterm and final exam, an oral presentation of an additional family therapy school, a genogram of the student's family of origin, and a research paper. The course emphasized experiential role-playing of actual clinical cases in the counseling laboratory, with peers and the instructor observing behind the one-way mirror, followed by the immediate feedback for the trainees. Videotape

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TABLE 1

Results of t test for dependent Samples

Pretest	Posttest	Post-Pre	n	t
X	X	X		
3.88	5.31	1.44	8	3.016**

**p<.01

feedback was also used as a learning technique to enhance skill development.

RESULTS

Demographic data indicated the student's name, the date, occupation, and place of employment. At pretest, student responses indicated they had role-played a client for training purposes an average number of 3.19 times (X=3.19) and had role-played a therapist 2 times (X=2). At posttest, students stated they had role-played a client for training purposes a total of 5.5 times (X=5.5) and had also role-played a therapist a total of 5.5 times (X=5.5).

Students then responded to the following question:

> Assume that you're in training as a marriage and family therapist. At this point in my training as a marriage and family therapist, on a scale of 1–10 (10 is high), I would rate my skills a __ (please indicate number).

Students rated their skills a 3.88 (X=3.88) at pretest and a 5.31 (X=5.31) at posttest. The difference between pre- and posttest measures was tested by using a t test for independent samples. The result was significant at alpha=.01 (see table 1).

Another question attempted to measure a possible perceptual shift in student thinking as discussed in the literature cited above:

> In considering the site of pathology, systems theory requires a shift in thinking from intrapsychic to interpersonal and from linear to circular causality. At this point in my training, on a scale of 1-10 (10 is systems; 1 is individual), I would rate my thinking about the site of pathology a __ (please indicate number).

The average response at pretest was 6.88 (X=6.88) and at posttest 6.13 (X=6.13) indicating little or no change.

PERSONAL QUALITIES: PRETEST RESPONSES

Another question probed possible differences that might exist between personal qualities of effective family and effective individual therapists:

> What personal qualities do you feel an effective family therapist should possess that might be different from an effective individual therapist?

Responses varied, but one of the most frequently mentioned qualities was the ability of the therapist to look at the whole as well as the individual parts. However, the ability to see and hear several interactions simultaneously was also regarded as important. Students also mentioned the ability to be more directive and assertive, to recognize patterns within the family, to join with the family and risk self-disclosure, to have a more educational/behavioral focus, to see growth as a process rather than content, and to see connections between language and meaning. Respondents cited the importance of setting aside personal values, of having extensive knowledge of systemic thinking, and, finally, of having the ability to view the system as a system.

PERSONAL QUALITIES: POSTTEST RESPONSES

At posttest there were some responses similar to pretest responses. These included having the ability to look at the entire picture, to be able to deal with many interactions and personalities at the same time, to be active and directive, to have extensive knowledge of systems theory, and to be able to see the family as a system.

Additionally, responses included being non-judgemental, having warm affect, and being creative. A student mentioned that family counselors need to prevent clients from taking all the responsibility for all problems. Another student listed flexibility to work with different generations as vital. One response had to do with the age of the therapist. A student wrote, "Being older, I feel there is nothing like 'hands on' experience with families. I feel more experience in life helps."

REACTIONS TO FAMILY THERAPY FIELD: PRETEST RESPONSES

The final question in this exploratory study attempted to gather information on students' personal and specific reactions to the field of family therapy.

In general, almost all students found the field exciting, dynamic, powerful, and challenging. Many mentioned the practicality of the approach, indicating it was useful and "made sense." One student went further by saying family therapy is essential to any

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hope of improving the mental health of our society. This student considered some of the structural techniques manipulative, but felt comfortable with other adaptations, particularly with Virginia Satir's (1972) approach. Another student "loved" family therapy but indicated confusion about the difference between marriage, family, and divorce therapy. Still another student stressed the intense involvement when dealing with families.

Several students indicated a personal connection to family therapy. For example, one respondent indicated, "I have found that this has been the most beneficial and informative class I've taken. Family therapy can be especially useful to all individuals. I've used information to change my personal reactions and responses to my students, husband, and friends." Another student stated she had gained insight into her own family problems, recognizing "why my mother is the way she is because she was abandoned." Another student said, "I love it. Children are very important in my life, and as a single parent I have strong identification with family and family issues."

Qualities include: perspective, warm affect, directive, non-judgemental, and creativity.

REACTIONS TO FAMILY THERAPY FIELD: POSTTEST RESPONSES

Some responses reiterated the pretest answers, such as referring to the field as exciting, important, challenging, and "making sense." Others responded with more personal feelings than in previous responses. Some examples include: "It is exciting and intimidating. I find that I am fascinated by how parents and children interact"; "I am continually amazed, especially when I speak to parents of clients at work"; "It is a new idea to me—I think I should explore further."

One student found it more complicated than individual therapy and also more exciting, while another mentioned that it challenges the therapist's personal and professional integrity.

A few students indicated their desire to work in the field, saying, "I like it. I want to learn more and get more confident;" and "I would like to become one."

Perhaps the most striking response was the most direct: "I think this is the backbone of all problems in life."

DISCUSSION

It is generally accepted that repeated practice reduces performance anxieties, fears, and feelings of vulnerability about being observed and exposed to one's colleagues, as well as self-consciousness about one's image (Crane, Griffin, & Hill, 1986; Jessee & L'Abate, 1981; Liddle & Saba, 1982; Rosenbaum & Serrano, 1979).

In this study, students' self-ratings of their skill level changed from a 3.88 (X=3.88) at pretest on a scale of 1–10 to a 5.25 (X=5.25) after the course. This result demonstrates a statistically significant increase in trainees' confidence levels after participation in the training program. The heavy emphasis on experiential laboratory learning, with couples and families role-played by peers and followed by immediate feedback, may account for the significant increase in confidence levels.

The results of this study indicate that initial feelings of intimidation dissipated with increased practice, constructive feedback from peers, and positive reinforcement from the instructor. In other words, trainees experienced increased confidence concerning their therapeutic ability after participation in the training. The findings of this study provide evidence to support research indicating that experiential role-playing with observational feedback is an effective method for learning family therapy skills.

Students demonstrated little or no shift in thinking from an intrapsychic to an interpersonal view or from linear to circular causality during the course. There are several interpretations possible. Perhaps students had been previously exposed to interpersonal theory and circular causality before the course began so that this information was not new to them or as unique as some systems therapists like to believe. Perhaps their thinking shifted in the few short weeks of class before the pretest was administered. Another interpretation could be that the systemic and intrapsychic paradigms are not mutually antithetical ways of viewing reality but rather can exist in peaceful harmony. In fact, many systemic or cybernetic theories are relatively broad and include linear as well as circular causality. This data suggests that the so-called necessary "perceptual paradigmatic shift" or "conceptual leap" has been exaggerated and overemphasized. Many scholars cited above have noted a general reluctance to accept and implement the systemic viewpoint. Perhaps students can entertain multiple views of reality more readily than previously thought and can integrate the "new epistemology" comfortably with pre-existing views. The systemic viewpoint itself is inherently integrative and inclusive (Becvar & Becvar, 1988; Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1990). In addition, the pre- and post-test question could have been inherently invalid and unreliable in measuring a complex concept such as circular causality. Finally, the non-random sample and the small number of respondents is an obvious limitation that contraindicates the generalizability of the results. This study qualifies as a pilot study, and more research using larger samples is needed to be able to generalize and reach valid conclusions.

Students generally responded similarly at both pre- and posttest administrations of the questionnaire regarding requisite skills for family therapists. The effective family therapist, according top the themes which emerged from the data, needs to be more active, directive, and assertive, with the ability to control, label, and confront destructive interactions than the therapist engaged in traditional individual approaches, such as psychoanalytic or client-centered. In view of the increased resistance and often rigid adherence to homeostatic mechanisms which some families present, therapists often need more creative and powerful intervention skills (i.e., paradoxical) in order to deal with a number of people simultaneously, a variety of personalities, and complex interaction patterns across several generations (Becvar & Becvar, 1988; Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1990; Nichols, 1984). Ability to track process rather than content and a knowledge of systemic functioning, including such systemic concepts as wholeness, interdependence, and equifinality, are essential.

Personal and specific student reactions were enthusiastic and positive and included such adjectives as "powerful," "relevant," "exciting," "challenging," "beneficial," "essential to any hope of improving the mental health of our society," and "the backbone of all problems in life." On the contrary, student reactions also indicated concerns of manipulation and professional integrity, confusing and complicated interventions which often require more effort on the part of the therapist (possibly a reference to paradoxical interventions), as well as feelings of intimidation and lack of confidence which decreased during the training.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING

The effectiveness of a family therapy training program in an academic setting is dependent upon the ability of instructors to address several concerns. First, ethics, professional, and legal issues need to be incorporated into training programs not only to ameliorate student charges of manipulation and questions of personal and professional integrity, but also to prepare practitioners adequately for licensure exams and potential legal problems in clinical practice with families. Considering the increasing degree of stress and growing instability of the nuclear family since the 1960s (Costa, 1991; Costa & Nearpass, 1991; Nichols, 1984) along with rising drug and alcohol use and abuse, suicide, stepfamilies and nontraditional families, eating disorders, and domestic violence, it is prudent for marriage and family therapy trainers to implement and provide quality training programs that ethically and professionally address these issues which many individuals in dysfunctional families are facing. The author recommends replication of this study to assess the effectiveness of family therapy training programs.

Secondly, strategies for effective interventions in family systems must be refined and researched as to outcome efficacy with more comprehensive follow-up data. For example, to date relatively little controlled research exists on the efficacy of specific intervention techniques such as the use of paradox, circular questioning, and positive connotation, as well as on the efficacy of family therapy in general since the field is relatively young. It is not clear which methods work with which clients and in what circumstances. Additional research on implementation, structure, and format of optimal training programs, supervision, and teaching techniques (Gurman, 1983; Kniskern & Gurman, 1979; Nichols, 1984; Sprenkle & Piercy, 1984) is also needed.

The third implication for trainers, and perhaps the one that requires the most sensitivity, concerns students' initial feelings of

> Students can comfortably integrate the new approach with the support and encouragement of a sensitive trainer.

anxiety, intimidation, and vulnerability, which are an issue in any training program regardless of theoretical rationale (Ho, Hosford, & Johnson, 1985). The trainer must build on previous individualistic training with the utmost respect and consideration. Expanding previous linear views of reality must be handled with consideration and respect. The slightest implication that previous intrapsychic education was inaccurate or that the student was given inferior or incomplete training will only engender resistance on the part of trainees. Trainers must model appropriate joining with their students, i.e., they must recognize and acknowledge all counselor training as worthwhile and join with trainees in a parallel fashion, just as a family therapist must join, and build rapport with, a clinical family. Trainees need continued support and encouragement, constructive feedback, and frequent practice, preferably with live supervision and video feedback for later analysis, as well as observation and modeling by masters or professionals in the field.

The systemic and intrapsychic epistemologies are not necessarily incompatible, polarized, or rival paradigms as some have insisted (Green & Saeger, 1982; Liddle, 1978; Liddle & Saba, 1982; Piercy & Sprenkle, 1984). This study suggests that the "chasm" between the two may not require one to conceptually "leap" from one to the other as previously suggested. Students appear to be enthusiastic about the systemic viewpoint and can comfortably integrate the new approach with previous training if they have the support and encouragement of a sensitive trainer. The challenge to the scientific and professional community is to unite and utilize the contributions of both world views. Many family therapists overemphasize the family system at the expense of the individual, whereas individualistic approaches often focus on intrapsychic content at the expense of context and interpersonal patterns of interaction (Nichols, 1984). Knowledgeable family therapists are familiar with individual psychological approaches as well as with contextual and relationship-based family approaches. An integration and rapprochement is recommended so that together we may deepen our understanding of the cause of human pain and suffering, and foster more productive and fulfilling lives for dysfunctional individuals and families.

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BOOK REVIEWS

COUNSELING GAY MEN & LESBIANS: JOURNEY TO THE END OF THE RAINBOW

Counseling Gay Men & Lesbians: Journey to the End of the Rainbow. Sari Dworkin and Fernando Guitie'rrez (editors). Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association, 1992, 348 pp. ($28.95; $24.95, ACA members).

If you glanced at the title of this review and are about to turn the page, please finish this paragraph before deciding whether to read more or not. "Many counselors function under the myth that all clients are heterosexual, when at least 10% of the population has a same-sex orientation." Whether you operate under this myth or not, it is important to realize "The lack of practical knowldge about gays and lesbians [and bisexuals] and their lifestyle is a major obstacle to satisfactory counseling." Reading *Counseling Gay Men & Lesbians: Journey to the End of the Rainbow* is an excellent way to begin addressing this lack of knowledge.

The passage of Amendment 2 has focused much attention on the gay, lesbian, and bisexual communities, on the supporters of Amendment 2, on the opponents of Amendment 2, and on the state of Colorado as a whole. As a result of its passage, the amendment presents a myriad of challenges to the counseling professional. Although most of these challenges are beyond the scope of this review, one is not. The challenge of being informed about various cultures provides the framework for this review. As I read their work, I focused on the following question: Do Dworkin and Guitie'rrez meet this challenge of providing relevant counseling information about the gay, lesbian, and bisexual communities? My answer is yes. The next few paragraphs detail the reasons for my response.

The book is divided into five sections: Developmental Issues, Marriage and Family Counseling, Diverse Populations, Incidents of Violence, and Counseling Techniques.

The developmental section provides not only the essential "facts," but addresses the heart as well. One cannot help being moved by this sobering statistic found in the first chapter, "homosexual youth are two to three times more likely than other youth to attempt suicide and may comprise 30% of successful youth suicide attempts annually." Certain chapters, such as Career Counseling for the Gay and Lesbian Community, introduce issues some counselors may not even have considered.

Although many counselors would not consider themselves to be prejudiced, they probably would acknowledge their cultural background has influenced their view of the world. Pederson articulates the cultural challenge for the counselor, stating, "if counseling requires an accurate and profound understanding of the world around each client, then it seems extremely important for all counselors to take a broad multicultural perspective." The chapters in the Marriage and Family and in the Diverse Populations sections provide not only the type of information necessary to take a broad perspective in dealing with gay, lesbian, and bisexual communities, but they also challenge professionals to examine their values. For example, many readers will react to Murphy when she states: "The partners in a lesbian couple are doubly devalued and oppressed: as women in a male-dominated misogynist (woman-hating) society and as homosexuals in a heterosexually-dominated homophobic society." On the other hand, readers will gain a broader perspective in reading the chapter titled Gay, Lesbian, and African American: Managing the Integration of Identities because of the skillful manner in which the authors explain the complexities involved in counseling individuals who experience value conflicts by virtue of their membership in two or more cultural groups with differing cultural expectations.

Survivors of incest, gay bashing, or same-sex domestic abuse have all experienced the debilitating effects of violence. The chapters in the section on violence help us understand a little better, though not entirely, what it is like to be a survivor of such violence. Although we know the history of the world is replete with examples of violence being inflicted on individuals because of their membership in certain groups, it is no less disturbing to know a person is subject to violence because of anti-gay feelings. Even if chapters on violence do not directly ask the question, as a result of reading these chapters we can not help but ask ourselves what our obligations as professionals are in regard to this violence.

The last section on counseling techniques might be a starting place for those readers who have an extensive background of information on the gay, lesbian, and bisexual communities. You may want to consider reading the last two chapters of the section first: Empowering the Counseling Professional to Work With Gay and Lesbian Issues and Some Ethical Considerations When Counseling Gay, Lesbian and Bisexual Clients. These chapters provide a solid conceptual framework that will aid you as you read chapters of special interest, such as dealing with drug counseling, helping someone who is dying of AIDS, dealing with bias in psychological tests, and dealing with coming out process.

Although there are minor issues I wish the editors would address—e.g., providing an index and reducing the degree of repetition of information between chapters—I strongly recommend counseling professions add this book to their libraries.

"Hear me, my chiefs, I am tired; my heart is sick and sad. From where the sun now stands, I will fight no more forever!" These words, spoken in 1877 by Chief Joseph of the Nez Percé nation, echoed his and his people's pain in dealing with the broken promises of the United States government. If we are honest, we must acknowledge this lament could well have been penned by a gay, lesbian, or bisexual in response to a society that is at best indifferent and at its worst violently homophobic. Without knowledge, we as counseling professionals will at best be indifferent. *Counseling Gay Men & Lesbians: Journey to the End of the Rainbow* can be a beginning of your journey from indifference to sensitivity and effectiveness.

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FAMILY FALLOUT: A HANDBOOK FOR FAMILIES OF ADULT SEXUAL ABUSE SURVIVORS

Family Fallout: A Handbook for Families of Adult Sexual Abuse Survivors..
Dorothy Beaulieu Landry, The Safer Society Press, 1991, 75 pp. ($12.95).

Much has been written concerning help for survivors and perpetrators of sexual abuse. *Family Fallout* takes the next step and, in a short booklet form, offers concise, useful advice (indeed bibliotherapy) specifically for family members and friends of survivors.

Most people's initial response to news of someone's sexual abuse is one of shock, and feelings run the gamut from anger to disbelief. Landry offers insight for those close to the survivor, suggesting ways to share with the relative or friend working to cope with memories and "integrate the past with the present."

Suggestions begin with the reminder that the survivor has shown a great deal of courage in bringing his or her situation to light. The author emphasizes that family members must consider their responses in light of what the survivor needs.

Landry does cover coping strategies of the survivor, discussing possible dependency (a reaction to the abandonment survivors experienced), inattentiveness, or transference (which may be precipitated by a flashback). Denial by those close to the survivor may no longer be tolerated. Landry supports intimates, reminding them that their help has its limitations and coping with their own stress must be a priority.

Family Fallout contains special sections for adolescents and smaller children which address the concerns of these children of survivors. Landry adapts the language to the age of the child and includes possible presentations. She describes the lack of resources the parent had when the abuse was occurring in the past and encourages young people to recognize the specific steps the parent is taking toward recovery.

Adolescents are offered tasks to feel a part of the healing, while reminded that it is not their job to take care of the parent. Very young children can be given information in small chunks, and adults can assuage fears by acknowledging differences children notice in mommy or daddy.

Sharing in the recovery from the trauma of sexual abuse is a gift bestowed upon a family member or friend. *Family Fallout* provides insight that empowers this person to assist in nurturing the loved one on the "healing journey."

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SOLVING PROBLEMS IN COUPLE AND FAMILY THERAPY: TECHNIQUES AND TACTICS

Solving Problems in Couple and Family Therapy: Techniques and Tactics. Robert Sherman, Paul Oresky, and Yvonne Rountree. Brunner/Mazel: New York, 1991, 352 pp. ($38.50).

A plethora of books and articles has emerged in recent years addressing the theoretical framework and therapeutic processes involved in conducting marriage and family therapy. However, theory alone does not guarantee success as a family therapy practitioner. This excellent book provides over 200 tested methods for solving 14 common major therapeutic problems. The authors have compiled a wide variety of therapeutic multi-disciplinary techniques that can be adapted to the clinician's own theoretical approach, style and specific context.

This book has been designed as a quick and easy reference to the specific area of concern required by the clinician. Chapter 1 presents a general integrative model for behavioral change and lists specific strategies to change beliefs, roles, and skills; increase optimism and pride; promote social interest; and improve patterns of communication. Each chapter that follows addresses one major problem area. The problem areas examined include encouragement, joining, resistance, boundaries, children and adolescents, the dance of intimacy, family myths, cross-cultural conflicts, repairing hurts and grievances, redirecting power plays, chronically ill family members, physical and sexual abuse, and grief work. The discussion of each major problem area begins with a theoretical introduction to the problem and is followed by one to three major structured techniques. The authors include a theoretical rationale, a description of the procedure to implement it, a case study, and alternative uses of the technique. At the end of each chapter, a description of a variety of additional tips, tactics, and less complex techniques is presented followed by references and additional sources of information.

This book is intended as a complement to the *Handbook of Structured Techniques in Marriage and Family Therapy* by Robert Sherman and Norman Friedman (1986) and the *Handbook of Measurements for Marriage and Family Therapy* by Norman Friedman and Robert Sherman (1987), both published by Brunner/Mazel. The first describes many tested complex techniques in each category—fantasy and metaphor, paradoxical, structural, behavioral, etc. The second describes over 40 popular instruments and inventories for use in family therapy. However, the book I reviewed is a significant improvement over the previous two due to its systematic approach to major therapeutic challenges, and its format provides easy access to a wide range of comprehensive techniques.

Both students of marriage and family therapy and experienced clinicians will find this a useful resource for expanding their repertoire of techniques. I highly recommend this book as a text for a graduate course in marriage and family therapy techniques and for therapists in private practice, agency settings, employee assistance programs, or almost any therapeutic context. Some of the techniques can be adapted for group work in the schools by school counselors, particularly the chapters on children and adolescents, repairing hurts and grievances, redirecting power plays, and stopping physical and sexual abuse. This is especially true in view of the recent trend toward implementing family therapy in the schools.

While an excellent chapter on ethnicity is included, noticeably absent is a chapter on gender or feminist family therapy, which recently have received increased attention in the literature. Many of the techniques may not be new to experienced and seasoned and professionals, but the are, nevertheless, presented in a refreshing and innovative manner. Some of these adapted techniques are the genogram, the family council, tracking, matching and pacing, reframing and ascribing noble intentions, the empty chair, family drawing and art therapy, behavioral contracting, and sculpting. The authors do an excellent job of describing the use of paradoxical techniques such as the "Winner's Bet" with adolescents, empowering client dominion over the symptom, and other indirect methods. I especially liked the chapters on the closeness–distance dance and defusing and redirecting power plays due to their in-depth analysis and creativity in ameliorating problematic interpersonal dynamics, such as the pervasive pursuer–distancer cycle. The Non–Demand Communication Ritual appears to be a refreshing way to encourage intimacy between parent and oppositional child, or between partners in pursuer–distancer relationships. Another interesting technique is the Experiencing and Expressing Love Exercise which can be used to diagnostically identify how loving communication is breaking down and the difference in style and needs among members of a group.

While an index listing each specific technique would provide even easier access for the clinician, overall this is an excellent resource book for counselors to use frequently in almost all settings, but especially for students and practicing marriage and family therapists. Perhaps the greatest compliment to give this book, beyond a strong recommendation to all clinicians, regardless of experience level of theoretical orientation, is the positive emphasis and focus on strengths in relationships.

Luann Costa, Ph.D., L.M.F.T.

SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND TEENS: A PROGRAM FOR POSITIVE CHANGE

Sexual Harassment and Teens: A Program for Positive Change. Susan Strauss with Pamela Espeland. Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing, 1992, 160 pp. ($17.95).

A paperback textbook for educators, *Sexual Harassment and Teens: A Program for Positive Change* is designed as curriculum support for high schools and community youth groups or organizations. Developed as a result of reviewing studies conducted in Minnesota schools, the goal of the project is educational intervention.

An overview of legal definitions and decisions, from the 1964 Civil Rights Act to the Franklin W. Gwinnett County Public Schools, sets the stage for addressing the problem of sexual harassment in schools. The latter case clarified that students who suffer sexual harassment or sexual discrimination can seek monetary damages from school systems and officials for civil rights violations.

Statistics and lists enumerate examples of sexual harassment in schools and delineate its effects on the victims, as well as the organization and integrity of the school. Strauss provides specific information and clearly defines the range of sexual harassment, from name calling and gesturing, to "snuggies" and "spiking," to sexual assault.

The first strong recommendation the authors make is to develop a sexual harassment policy and procedure, and implement it. Strauss includes guidelines easily adaptable by schools or other organizations, from reviewing materials and considering teaching style to preparing a response system for teens needing extra help. Teachers will find the program elements very usable, with suggested scripts for presentations and specific lesson plans including, materials, suggested time frames, discussion questions, and supplementary activities.

Reproducibles include 22 transparency forms and 9 handouts. A survey is included for needs assessment, and a course evaluation can determine effects of the program. A bibliography of resources, including videos, is extensive.

Sexual Harassment and Teens provides the format for school personnel who are concerned about this issue, yet lack the time to organize such an extensive, well-researched program. This insightful and practical program shows merit, and teachers and school officials who desire to make an important change in this area will appreciate such a positive assist.

Pam Stinson

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- Submit four clear copies, along with a 3.5" floppy disk containing the manuscript in word processing form—MS Word or Works preferred.
- Manuscripts should not exceed 3,000 words. A typical article would run from 8-12 pages of double-spaced, typewritten copy. However, do not let length considerations inhibit expressing of ideas.
- Double-space material, including references, quotations, tables and figures.
- Cite sources correctly in the bibliography and as in-text notes.
- Use tables sparingly and type them on separate pages. Supply graphs, illustrations, and drawings as camera-ready art.
- Follow the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 3rd Edition.*
- Avoid use of generic masculine pronouns and sexist terminology.
- Use current research as much as possible.
- Document research and sources correctly.
- Avoid footnotes.
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- On a separate page, record your name, position, title, place of employment, mailing address, two telephone numbers, and indicate how you prefer to be cited in the *Journal.*
- Do not submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

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FROM THE EDITOR

This has been a year of transitions, both personal and professional, as my husband and I begin a new adventure. This spring, Capp retired after 34 years with the Bureau of Reclamation. I too made changes, leaving behind 23 years in the educational system to pursue my work as a psychotherapist and a business consultant. In addition, I enrolled at UCD to finish coursework necessary for a Marriage and Family Therapist certificate.

As a result of our changes, Capp and I are in the midst of negotiating this new world, sharing walks and intense conversation, discussing people and horses, and always looking for a new restaurant to try in between business appointments and trips to visit the children.

I wondered what Erik Erikson would say and so I looked into his *States of Psychosocial Development* to see where our journey of life had led. Yes, we do fit Maturity and we have achieved relative peace (except when remodeling the family room), and we've had a marvelous trip so far. We are blessed.

AWARENESS has also been going through its own transition. The challenge this year involved incorporating changes in this Fall issue and focusing on the direction for future issues. This year, in addition to the reviewers who have generously given their time to offer suggestions to writers, I have added two new members to provide assistance and creative input. Pam Stinson, a school counselor from Wheat Ridge High School in Jefferson County, will coordinate a section called "On the Edge," featuring book reviews as well as new ideas and trends within the counseling field.

Marsha Wiggins Frame, Assistant Professor at the University of Colorado at Denver, will develop a section featuring ethics and looking at legalities that counselors face. Both Pam and Marsha bubble with insight and ideas, so we will continue to put out a superior *Journal*.

For the next issue, we are soliciting feature articles, research-oriented articles, and graduate work. We are also looking for artwork and photos to illustrate our articles. For this Fall issue, I have included work from David Dengerink. Because I've known David since he was about seven, I've followed his career with delight. Like many young college students, David has had his own transitions to make and sometimes they involved tough decisions. David, a superior soccer player, started college—and then he took an art class. Hooked, he left soccer behind, moved across the country, and changed schools, graduating this spring from the Chicago Institute of Art. I appreciate that David agreed to share some of his work with us.

Finally, we are enclosing a post card and want your opinion about AWARENESS. Please give us feedback regarding the type of articles that would be most useful to you, letting us know what you really don't read and offering suggestions regarding AWARENESS. There are other spots to be checked on the post card if you want to be involved with any of the organizations of CCA, especially since Colorado will be the site of the ACA convention in the spring. In addition, just to spread the word, we ask that you share your issue with a friend who is not currently a member of CCA, letting them see the *Journal* and perhaps enticing them to join our fine Colorado Counseling Association.

May you have a marvelous year.

AWARENESS

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MULTICULTURAL COUNSELING TRAINING: INTEGRATION INTO THE CURRICULUM

Connie T. Schliebner, PhD

ABSTRACT

This article describes various approaches to multicultural counselor training. The author supports training that expands counselor self-awareness, knowledge of specific racial/ethnic groups, and multi-cultural counseling competence. A separate course design is discussed with suggestions for didactic and experiential learning tasks. It is recommended that counselor training programs move toward an integrated curriculum that infuses multi-cultural counseling goals into all of the courses.

The demographics of the United States have moved toward an older and more culturally diverse population. Population statistics indicate that in the near future more than half the American population will be of non-European descent (Ridley, Mendoza, & Kanitz, 1994). Counselors being trained today will likely have contact with culturally different clients. It is imperative that training programs prepare counselors to provide culturally responsive services. Incorporating multicultural training helps counteract negative stereotyping, lack of knowledge about diverse groups of people, and, often, anxiety about the lack of necessary skills to meet the unique needs of diverse client populations. This training expands awareness, broadens the knowledge base, and increases the repertoire of counseling competencies (D'Andrea & Daniels, 1991).

Traditional counseling theories were driven by monocultural assumptions developed by culturally encapsulated theorists (primarily male) who were operating from a Eurocentric perspective (Ridley et al., 1994). The inadequacy of this perspective has been clearly recognized by the American Psychological Association and the American Counseling Association, who have incorporated knowledge of cultural diversity into their training standards.

In order for professional training programs to be accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), a counseling program's goals must reflect (a) "current knowledge ... concerning the counseling and human development needs of a multicultural society" and (b) "the present and projected needs of a multicultural society for which specialized counseling and human development activities have been developed" (Accreditation procedures, 1988, p. 25).

As the growing numbers of culturally different clients seek mental health services, the impact of culture has been and will continue to be apparent to the profession. The challenge is to meet these standards by providing curriculum and training programs that develop culturally aware, knowledgeable, and skilled counselors.

The following vignette is an example of problems that might be encountered when communicating across cultures within a therapy situation. The therapist lacked multicultural training as well as specific knowledge about the culture of her clients. The therapist can be described as ethnocentric—viewing the world from "mine is best" and internalizing value assumptions about what is good for society. The vignette serves as an example of

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Dr. Connie Schliebner, University of Colorado at Denver
Counseling Psychology and Counselor Education

how ethnocentrism enlarges the gap between persons from different cultures.

Mr. and Mrs. T, a Chinese couple, sought help at a community mental health clinic near their home. Mr. T had come to the United States six years ago bringing his widowed mother and a younger brother. His brother was attending a university in another state and Mr. T was working in an architect firm. Mrs. T had left China ten years ago and lived in several countries in Europe before coming to the United States. The couple sought counseling after months of arguing about Mr. T's attentiveness to his mother and lack of attention to Mrs. T. Mr. T was very reluctant to see a counselor and discuss their private marital problems but did so to keep Mrs. T happy. The couple was assigned to Dr. Kathy, a white female therapist.

The initial session was characterized by Mr. T being very stern, uncooperative, and overbearing of his wife. He interrupted her when she spoke and frequently spoke for her. Mr. T stated that if he had to choose between taking care of his wife or taking care of his mother, his mother would be given priority. Dr. Kathy was becoming agitated at Mr. T's behavior and his comment about caring for mother. She confronted him about his controlling nature and speaking for his wife. Mr. T immediately left the office in a very angry state. He refused to return, so Mrs. T continued counseling alone. Dr. Kathy focused on assertiveness training, Mr. T's sexist attitude, and how Mrs. T should become her own person. Mr. and Mrs. T eventually separated.

Lack of multicultural training or knowledge of Chinese family relationships and hierarchy of power resulted in inappropriate therapy for this couple. Also, the couple was at different levels of acculturation. Had the therapist understood their cultural values and traditions and the process of acculturation, she could have intervened through exploring the traditional Chinese world view versus that of an assertive American female. The couple may have remained together.

DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE AND MULTICULTURAL COUNSELING

To understand the close connection between counseling and culture, discussions about terminology should continue. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) found over 150 definitions of culture. The narrow definition of culture is limited to categories of race or ethnicity, which may also include language and religion (Pedersen, 1988). A broader definition of culture includes demographic variables of age, sex, and place of residence; status variables such as social, educational, and economic background; and formal memberships or informal affiliations (Pedersen, 1991). Garcia, Wright, and Corey (1991) concluded that culture can be conceptualized as the shared way of life of members of a society, which includes institutions, language, values, customs, religious ideals, and patterns of social relationships.

There are over 150 definitions of culture.

From the broad perspective of culture, Pedersen (1988) argued that to some extent all mental health counseling is multicultural. He stated that "multicultural counseling is a situation in which two or more persons with different ways of perceiving their social environment are brought together in a helping relationship" (p. viii). Vontress (1988) defined the term as "counseling in which the counselor and the client are culturally different because of socialization acquired in distinct cultural, subcultural, racioethnic, or socioeconomic environments" (p. 74).

Review of the literature indicated that there is no one universal definition of culture or multicultural counseling. Whether program developers approach multicultural training from a narrow or broad view of culture is a philosophical decision that needs to be determined by each training program. There is agreement that counselors have an ethical responsibility to provide culturally appropriate counseling: by increasing knowledge of diverse groups, developing new skills, and adapting traditional counseling theories to meet the needs of individuals with non-European origins (Association for Multicultural Counseling and Development, 1986).

TRAINING CURRICULUM

In addition to the continuing discussions regarding definitions and philosophies of culture and multicultural counseling, there is a lack of consensus on how best to integrate multicultural training into existing curricula (Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1993). Johnson (1987) stated that there is a need to design training programs that move trainees from "knowing that" cultural differences exist to helping them "know how" to conduct therapeutic sessions with clients from diverse cultures.

Copeland (1982) described four training models that have been implemented into existing multicultural counseling programs: 1) Separate Course, 2) Interdisciplinary, 3) Integrated, and 4) Area of Concentration. The Separate Course and Interdisciplinary models encourage students to take courses in racial/ethnic studies, which provide an in-depth study of one or several ethnic groups. The Integrated model infuses multicultural counseling goals into all of the courses in the training program. Under the Area of Concentration model, a strand of courses that focus on one or several minority groups is offered.

Atkinson, et al. (1993) noted that each of the models have certain strengths and weaknesses. The Separate Course, Interdisciplinary, and Area of Concentration models provide for in-depth study of one or several groups but may not provide a generalized understanding of other oppressed groups (e.g. women, gays, lesbians, disabled). The Separate Course model is easiest to implement.

Ideally, the Integrated model satisfies the recommendation that multicultural training be placed at the core of the counseling curriculum (Ivey, 1987). This is probably an unrealistic goal for the near future for several reasons: All faculty members would need to have multicultural knowledge and skills, training they may not have received; budget restraints hinder providing courses that cover all groups; emphasizing too much specialized training for students may limit their employability; and choosing which groups will receive special courses could be divisive for a counseling program (Atkinson et al., 1993; Copeland, 1982; Margolis & Rungta, 1986).

At minimum, a separate course on multicultural counseling is suggested while working toward an integrated model. Every counselor training program is encouraged to address issues of incorporating elements of awareness, knowledge, and skill.

MULTICULTURAL COURSE DESIGN

Multicultural training is a developmental process designed to increase counselor understanding in three stages. The first stage, awareness, identifies biases, beliefs, attitudes, and assumptions based on experiences with other cultures. The second stage, knowledge, allows for the acquisition of information about the history and culture of diverse groups of people. The final stage, skill, provides opportunities to develop and improve culturally sensitive therapeutic techniques (Lee, 1991; Pedersen, 1988).

AWARENESS

The self-awareness segment of training is a consciousness-raising approach that challenges personal attitudes and beliefs about persons of other cultures and ethnic origins, stressing awareness of the trainee as a cultural being (Lewis & Hays, 1991). Affective and structured techniques increase understanding of how these variables might affect the therapeutic relationship (McRae & Johnson, 1991).

Various experiential exercises to facilitate self-awareness and reduce stereotyping have been discussed in the literature. Pedersen (1988) recommended the following techniques to stimulate awareness: role playing, role reversals, simulations, field trips, bicultural observations and experiences, and didactic approaches to enhance cognitive understanding. Role playing and reversals provide opportunities to try new skills and receive feedback from supervisors (Ridley et al., 1994). Two trainees role play a counseling session, one acting as client the other as counselor. The class observes and gives feedback, adding insight into problems that have a cultural basis. These sessions can also be videotaped, providing the opportunity to stop and ask questions, discuss techniques, and evaluate strategies.

Simulation exercises such as BaFa BaFa (Shirts, 1977), the Cross-Cultural Dyadic Encounter (CCDE) (Beale, 1986), and the Cultural Attitudes Repertory Technique (CART) (Fukuyama & Neimeyer, 1985) provide exposure to other cultures. By simulating various cultural situations, these techniques attempt to increase the appreciation of and sensitivity to persons in other ethnic groups.

Garcia et al. (1991) suggested that trainees keep a journal and write a self-reflective paper relating personal reactions to issues presented in the course. This exercise is an introspective process that promotes identification and examination of attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions (Ridley et al., 1994). Writing assignments that include thoughtful feedback can encourage reflection on multicultural ideas.

> **Three stages identify biases, beliefs, and assumptions; challenge personal attitudes and belief structure; provide skills–acquisition opportunities.**

Knowledge

The second component of a multicultural counseling course emphasizes the development of cultural knowledge. McRae and Johnson (1991) stated that knowledge involves acquiring facts and information about culture. This includes gathering information about the cultural values and the social and political history of a group. This component serves both an affective and cognitive function, providing trainees with an opportunity to be sensitized and obtain information concerning life issues and circumstances of specific populations.

Provision of an accurate knowledge-base can eliminate much false information and stereotypes about different cultural groups (D'Andrea & Daniels, 1991). Mio (1989) noted that a counselor's cultural understanding of a client can increase credibility, which promotes therapeutic success.

Pedersen (1988) noted that teaching knowledge often relies on books, lectures, and classroom techniques. He suggested the following techniques to impart knowledge: guided self-study with a reading list, lecture, and discussion; panel discussions; audio-visual presentations; interviews with consultants and experts; and observations of persons from other cultures in their daily activities. These activities help trainees absorb relevant and accurate information that otherwise may be difficult to secure.

A variety of textbooks and edited volumes provide information to meet the objectives of the knowledge component. *Counseling American Minorities* by Atkinson, Morten, and Sue (1993), *Transcultural Counseling: Bilateral and International Perspectives* by McFadden (1993), *Multicultural Issues in Counseling* by Lee and Richardson (1991), *Counseling the Culturally Different* by Sue and Sue (1990), *Counseling Across Cultures* by Pedersen, Draguns, Lonner, and Trimble (1989), and *A Handbook for Developing Multicultural Awareness*, by Pedersen (1988).

Skill

The third segment of the multicultural training course is skill development. The skill component brings together both awareness and knowledge. Pedersen (1988) stated that acquiring skills is not only the most difficult level of multicultural training but also the most important. In order to be more effective when working with culturally diverse clients, the skilled counselor integrates an understanding of individual cultural differences and uses various techniques and interventions (Ivey, 1987). It is important that trainees not only learn about other cultures but have the opportunity to practice and improve their skills.

Sue et al. (1982) identified three areas of skill competencies for multicultural counselors. The first requires that the culturally skilled counselor be able to generate a wide variety of verbal and nonverbal responses appropriate to the cultural setting and skill level. Second, counselors should be able to send and receive both verbal and nonverbal messages accurately and appropriately in each culturally different context. Finally, counselors will be able to exercise institutional intervention skills on behalf of clients as appropriate to each cultural context.

Pedersen (1988) recommended that developing these skills involves the following techniques: modeling and demonstration; using video and media resources for feedback; supervising; and practicing a new behavior pattern. Simulations and in-class exercises can facilitate the acquisition of culturally sensitive interventions. The Triad Model is a simulated cross-cultural micro-counseling interview. The role-play consists of a counselor, client, and a pro-counselor or anti-counselor. The pro-counselor or anti-counselor acts as the internal dialogue of the counselor and the client to highlight cross-cultural issues that may affect the interaction between the two.

The Intercultural Sensitizer (IS) (Leong & Kim, 1991) is a training tool that consists of many critical incidents of cross-cultural interactions. The critical incidents focus on the interactions between persons of different cultures and alternative responses of counselors to culturally different clients. This provides the trainee with an active experience from which he/she can learn the behaviors, norms, values, perceptions, and customs of another culture. The case-study approach of learning about different cultures demonstrates the importance of moving beyond abstract book-learning to actual cases for the development of professional knowledge and skills (1991).

Lee (1991) stresses the importance of experiencing cultural diversity "in vivo" through practicum/internship experiences, as well as field trips to diverse communities. These experiences provide firsthand involvement through interaction with diverse groups of people.

The course content that has been described reflects issues related to self-awareness, knowledge of diverse groups of people, and skills for working in multicultural environments. Multicultural training is a developmental process by which the trainee advances through stages of developing appropriate attitudes, opinions, and assumptions about culture, acquiring facts and information about diverse groups of people, and developing skills to interact with persons from another culture.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The Separate Course training model is designed to increase student awareness by using didactic and experiential learning tasks to meet the competency of a culturally skilled counselor. If the course is required, it exposes all trainees to multicultural training, showing a commitment to the appreciation of diversity (Ridley et al., 1994). Counselor training programs interested in preparing professionals for work in a multicultural world may want to move toward an integrated curriculum that infuses multicultural awareness into all core courses in order to provide consistency throughout the training process. However multicultural training is incorporated into the curriculum, the goal is to produce culturally sensitive counselors. This competence will improve the quality of psychological services available to culturally diverse populations.

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ON HIS OWN?: FIFTEEN YOUNG MEN ENVISION THEIR FUTURES

Douglas M. Gertner, PhD

ABSTRACT

This exploratory study involved interviews with 15 young men ages 13-25, representing diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds, who were asked to discuss their goals, dreams, and visions for their futures. Attention was given to masculine gender-role expectations such as educational and occupational choices, men's and women's issues, sex, heroes, and family roles. Respondents were grouped by their answers into three categories, "Outsiders," "Neotraditionalists," and "New Alternative Dads," based on a similar study conducted with young women.

INTRODUCTION

As a teacher and researcher of men and masculinity, the author has observed a wide range of gender role behaviors among students, colleagues, friends, and acquaintances. In this so-called "man's world," there is a great deal of variation in how males act out the values and expectations that encompass masculinity. Having been active in an emerging pro-feminist men's movement, which has derived from and aligned with both women's and gay rights movements, the author has been interested in how the changing male sex role is affecting the way young men envision their futures. An exploratory study—modeled after a larger, qualitative project based on young women's views of their futures—was undertaken in order to draw comparisons and yield new information.

RELATED LITERATURE

Most similar studies have been limited to college students. A historical perspective is offered by Komarovsky (1973) who in a study of 62 Ivy League college men found a campus ethos that paid at least lip service to "liberal attitudes toward working wives" (p. 210). Pleck's (1987) overview of fatherhood in America points to a "new father" who takes a role in the nurturing of both-sex children and in household duties. This modern alternative, according to Pleck, does not signal the elimination of more traditional roles such as the distant breadwinner or moral overseer.

In a study of 303 college students (N=103 men), Hammersla and Frease-McMahan (1990) examined subject's priorities when life goals and relationships were in conflict. An unexpected finding in this study showed that men and women were equally as likely to place greater priority on an opposite-sex relationship over various life goals. Spade and Reese (1991) asked in a study of 320 college students (N=172 men): How do males and females prepare for their futures? What are their attitudes, values, and expectations about work, family and household management? They found that men are more likely to hold traditional expectations and women more symmetrical notions. Men more often prefer that their spouse not work outside of the home and feel it is less important that they as husbands assist in household activities.

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Fiorentine's (1988) examination of data from the *American Freshman* survey conducted by the American Council on Education (ACE) found "increasing similarities in the values and life plans of male and female college students." Data from the ACE survey is cited by Machung (1989, in addition to her own study of thirty Berkeley seniors (N=17 men). She examined the differences of gender in visions of the future and noted that men's desire for family has "risen and converged with that of undergraduate women" (p. 57). Although Machung found that these men espoused "egalitarian" beliefs, they often envisioned a more traditional household where they would be supported in the role of primary breadwinner by a woman whose role it would be to care for the children and the home.

Machung's data reflects the reality depicted in Hochschild's (1989) work (on which Machung collaborated) intensively examining the gender ideologies of fifty married couples. Among the various gender strategies—problem solving strategies based upon a person's beliefs about men and women developed throughout the lifecourse — Hochschild identifies three, distinct ideologies. A *traditional* ideology places the woman's role as domestic and the man at work in the public sphere. Purely *egalitarian* couples inhabit the same sphere with equal power for each partner, in each realm. *Transitional* couples blend both of the aforementioned ideologies (p. 15). Where younger subjects are concerned, Marini (1978) offered a review of the research pertaining to the life goals of adolescents, particularly as related to their educational and occupational aspirations, noting that those choices are highly sex-stereotyped.

David Dengerink

Ruth Sidel (1990) refers, in the introduction to her book *On Her Own*, to "that quintessentially American vision"—the *American Dream*—as "for the most part a male dream" (p. 1). Continuing, the author discusses the societal changes initiated and experienced by women over the last 20 years, leading Sidel to ask the central question of her research: "What about the next generation [of women]?" (p. 3). To answer this question, Sidel interviewed over one hundred fifty women of diverse ages from across the United States. This research focused on young women between the ages of 12 and 25, drawn from ethnically, racially, geographically, economically, and educationally diverse backgrounds. From these interviews, Sidel identified three subgroups within her population.

The first group, whom she calls *New American Dreamers*, see a bright future for themselves with a focus upon a career, possibly coupling and raising a family as long as this does not interfere with their work. *Neotraditionalists*, according to Sidel, also plan to have careers. However, these young women place greater importance upon their domestic role, seeking to balance this or give it precedence over their public activities. A third group, *Outsiders*, seldom look to the future. Theirs is an alienated existence characterized by stigma and denigration. These women are often of a lower socioeconomic class, maybe non-white or maybe more temporarily "outside," as in the case of a middle-class, unmarried mother or a vast number of young women during adolescence.

PURPOSE AND METHOD OF THIS STUDY

Sidel's (1990) findings are a vivid illustration of how young women in the late 1980s have experienced the changes forged by the Women's Movement. This account of her data has suggested the central question of this paper: What about the young men? How have they experienced societal changes in gender-based expectations? How do men in their early teens and twenties understand their place in society? What about their future? Do they believe that, as males, the American Dream is rightfully theirs?

In an effort to determine any patterns in outlook similar or in contrast to the three groups identified by Sidel (1990), a small exploratory study was undertaken to examine these questions. The methodology for this study involved individual and small group (two- or three-person) interviews with 15 young men (roughly ten percent of Sidel's population) ranging in age from 13-25. The sample was non-random, derived from referrals and acquaintances of the author. They were all residents of a small city in the Rocky Mountain region; the college student respondents were attending a large, land-grant university. All participants completed a short, demographic questionnaire prior to their interview.

Respondents were asked specifically about their goals and priorities for the future. Where do they see themselves at ages 25, 30, and 35, and what will their public and private lives be like? Are they concerned about balancing work outside of the home with domestic responsibilities? What are the key issues facing men today, and where do women fit into their world and the larger society? Who are their heroes and with which (if any) television characters do they identify? What about relationships, sex, and decisions about birth control?

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings in this study mirror those of Sidel (1990) in reflecting three distinct groups of roughly the same proportions: two correspond directly with hers and one depicts a variation based upon gender difference. *Outsiders* and *Neotraditionalists* emerged as essentially identical subgroups to Sidel's in this study, while a subgroup which this author calls the *New Alternative Dads* is analogous to, yet distinct from, Sidel's *New American Dreamers.*

OUTSIDERS

> It's hard to say what I'll be doing at 25…
>
> *Ron Bird, 18*
> *high school dropout*

The author interviewed three residents—all age 14—of a youth shelter. Though with distinctively different personalities, they each shared the experience of being displaced and, thus, of being different from their peers. Ned Turner, a veteran of the shelter, was born when his mother was 14 and remarked "She hasn't taken care of me in 14 years." His written answers and comments depict a bright young man, and his frequent interruptions and asides were indicative of the boundless energy he brought to the interview.

Regarding the future, Ned Turner spoke of playing professional football or perhaps professional skateboarding. On his goal of being a first-round draft choice of a particular NFL team, he commented, "I'm dreamin', dude!" Yet his vision for growing up was an unfocused combination of possible occupations (architect, fireman) and his heroes were several figures from professional sports. Ned Turner mentioned relating to cartoon characters and added, "Everything would be easy if it was like on TV. If something goes bad you can say 'cut' and do it over." In relation to the two other Outsiders interviewed at the shelter, Ned Turner was viewed as being in between. He could go either way, toward a more settled future or into the decline that his difficult life circumstances might predict.

By contrast, Les Samuelson seemed only temporarily outside. His parents had recently become involved with a rigid, charismatic religious group and Les calmly and articulately explained that he disliked his folks, disagreed with their beliefs and did not care to be around them. Although his short-term goal—to be a professional skateboarder—reflects the uncertainty of shelter living, Les actually had a clear vision of his future. Among his heroes, Les named several professional athletes and a rock star, along with Edgar Allan Poe and William Shakespeare.

Dillon Stone, by contrast, is a small, young-looking 14 year-old whose father is deceased. He expressed the desire that his mother would stop drinking so that he could "go home and get on with life." Beyond this, he could not really dream of the future except for disjointed aspirations of playing professional baseball, college football, or maybe, after retiring from these sports, giving pro boxing a try. He would like a family that resembles the television Cosbys where "everything is smooth going."

All of these 14 year-olds, along with 18 year-old *Outsider* Ronny Bird, were quite consistent in their thinking about sex. In the days just after learning that basketball hero Magic Johnson was HIV positive, these young men were well-informed about contraception, pregnancy, and the threat of AIDS.

"It would totally suck to get someone pregnant," Ronny said during our discussion at a local coffee shop where he and other high school-age "fringe" members hang out. "I couldn't just ignore it or say 'it's your problem.' If I wasn't responsible I'd feel like total shit."

Ronny's long red hair and black t-shirt from a heavy metal concert are consistent with his vague view of the future--to play drums in a band. Recently kicked out of his middle-class home after dropping out of an alternative high school, Ronny shared with the other Outsiders a knowledge and sense of responsibility where sex is concerned.

His dreams were similar as well, inhabiting an idealized world that is at once a ticket to paradise and an unlikely possibility to attain.

These Outsiders, like those encountered by Sidel (1990), were caught up in their present world with little ability to see beyond the day-to-day. Their vision was drawn to the romanticized world of professional sports and rock music as well as to the diversion of funny paper and television heroes. Like Sidel, this author met some young men who seemed temporarily outside and others destined for a lifetime of alienation.

Neotraditionalists

> I'd like our balance of work and home to be 50/50 but realistically I will have to work harder...
>
> *Keith Iwada, 24*
> *graduate student*

There was a lot of diversity among the Neotraditionalists interviewed. They were Chicano, African-American, Japanese American, and Jewish. They shared a vision of the future which was similar to the group in Sidel's (1990) study, open to certain egalitarian options yet ultimately committed to a lifestyle which represents more traditional gender roles.

Having recently completed bar mitzvah—a ceremony in which a Jewish boy passes into manhood—13 year-old Art Deutsch had a clear vision of his future. He planned to attend law school, marry, and have three children. His wife will be chosen for her personality since "No one looks good at [age] 60." The child of two psychotherapists, Art's more traditional values are apparently driven by his experience of his parents' busy professional schedules. He expressed a willingness to have a working wife buffered by his own desire to spend less time away from his family than do his folks currently. Yet Art welcomes the prospect of a traditional job, saying no one in his family has had such a career. The prospect of staying home with the children was not viewed as an option for Art.

Alex Andrews, a college junior majoring in philosophy, expressed feeling tension as he looked toward graduation. While he aspires to a PhD and mentions the importance of education in his life, especially as an African-American, Alex concluded that he would choose marriage even if it meant delaying his doctoral work.

These sentiments are shared by many of the Neotraditionalists encountered in this study. Like Sidel's (1990) group of women, none of the men interviewed here suggested that gender must determine their role in relation to domestic and public work. Each hoped for a balance yet acknowledged their ultimate responsibility for providing for the family.

Keith Iwada, for example, hopes to father several children when he is emotionally and financially ready. He added, "Right now I can make ends meet because I don't have that many ends." In order to provide for his family, he plans to invest well in hopes of being independently wealthy. Keith places children above his work, just as did Sidel's Neotraditionalists, and would be willing to realign his career when kids came along. He views the "deterioration of the family" and the "lack of role models" as the biggest issues for men today. "Our big responsibility is not to bail out."

Adam Gonzales, a sociable 14 year-old Chicano and another aspiring attorney, was interviewed along with his brother Mark, 19. Both have some traditional values, although Adam was more willing to accept his role as provider and envisioned his future wife staying at home with their children.

Along with Keith Iwada, Tom Bailey was one of the Neotraditionalists who also held some views of the New Alternative Dads. Tom, an African-American college senior with aspirations of owning a consulting business, was among the several young men interviewed who mentioned TV's Cosby family as an ideal. He admires Dr. Huxtable, the main character played by Bill Cosby who maintains a successful business and family while working at home. (The residence hall room where Tom was interviewed was a comfortable world of high-tech audio, video, and computing equipment of the sort he one day plans to have in his own home.) And Keith Iwada acknowledged "I'd like to have a Cosby-type family, who wouldn't? But that's TV, it's not the real world."

The real world for Neotraditionalists in this study was a mirror image of the women interviewed by Sidel (1990), who sought a career only until their more traditional domestic responsibilities took precedence. These men all mentioned women's equality, and specifically that their wife would have a career of her own. Yet, as they envisioned their lives at age 35, their work was complemented by a woman whose primary role was in the domestic realm.

New Alternative Dads

> If I can break away from the traditional way I have been trained in this culture it will be different...
>
> *Earl Owens, 25*
> *engineer*

The New Alternative Dreamers in Sidel's (1990) study were women willing to forego their domestic life for the public world of work outside the home. With the progress made by the women's movement came new opportunities to envision a future that differed greatly from past generations of women, with a greater range of options than were available to their mothers. A glimmer of this new variation on the old gender strategy emerged in the subjects who were Neotraditionalists. They are similar to the transitional couples of Hochschild's (1989) study, tending toward a "shallow" gender ideology by espousing equality in relationships while planning and acting on a deeper feeling of the need for separate roles.

Several of the men interviewed for this study gave these mixed signals and seemed to span the distance between qualities of the Neotraditionalist and those of another, distinct subgroup which are being called New Alternative Dads. Like the New American Dreamers from Sidel's research, these men envision their future in a way unlike many American's have dreamt or have lived.

At 14, Antonio Morales stated that his life goal was "To be very happy and well-off, both materially and nonmaterially." He wants to teach science and admitted that he would probably enjoy cooking, child care at home, and other domestic duties. He expressed the belief that women should "feel no pressure to do this or that."

If I can break away from the traditional way I have been trained in this culture it will be different...

Eleven years Antonio's senior, Earl Owens stated his ultimate goal as the dream of living a sustainable lifestyle, "growing my food, using solar- and wind-generated energy, making music and friends, and being part of a community." To this end, within the next five years he planned to be in transition from his engineering job to that of a teacher. His future wife may also teach and he envisioned family time as centered on the land and focused upon togetherness. Earl views a central issue for men going beyond gender to challenge all people to live within the Earth's means.

This was echoed by Scott Barnes who, like Earl, sees the environment and the economy as important issues for men. At 22, Scott also plans to teach, marry, and make a life different from more traditional men. "I don't want career to be the priority," he says about the balance he hopes to achieve. Scott expressed a desire to be supervised in his job by a woman for the "challenge and the nurturing" this would offer.

As men, we have dominated Western society. We're looking in the mirror and not seeing much.

Scott's roommate, 23 year-old graduate student Chas Morgan, plans to follow his father's path to a PhD and a career in teaching. He, too, imagines the academic lifestyle as being conducive to a new, alternative way of parenting. Chas's heroes include his father and his favorite professor and mentor, both of whom he calls Great Teachers—"with capital letters"—who ask questions and attempt to understand the human condition. Chas views the greatest issue for men today as a spiritual dilemma:

> *As men, we have dominated Western society. We're looking in the mirror and not seeing much. Our systems, the economy for instance, are devoid of values. We no longer know what it means to be human. Men are at a turning point as we recognize the negativity, the costs, and the by-products. Women can help us as we confront social, global, political, and moral concerns. Ultimately, men can salvage ourselves by the long hard process of looking inward to see the emptiness and what it will take to fill the void.*

Chas reflected on sex and the reproductive rights of men, as he looked ahead to being married, and expressed how the fear of AIDS has changed his views on premarital sex. Like the Outsiders and Neotraditionalists, these New Alternative Dads voiced the importance of shared responsibility for birth control and protection against disease.

Sexuality was also a focal point for another type of New Alternative Dad represented in this study by Martin Bradley, a 24 year-old gay male graduate student who says of AIDS, "I am totally and absolutely scared." He envisioned a professional career in academia, yet asserted that he would like "the scale to tip towards home-life and relationships," for which he would be willing to forego a doctoral degree. In reflecting on the next dozen years of his life, Martin says, "Gay relationships are tenuous, they are an ambiguous thing in my life. I'd like to be committed and perhaps have a child or two. Don't ask me how this could be possible..."

A desire to be what Pleck (1987) called a "new father," and to go beyond this into alternative realms of public and domestic life, is the thread that connects these New Alternative Dads. As Martin Bradley put it, "I want to win bread, not be the breadwinner." Matt Gonzales speaks for many when he admits, "I grew up in a sexist household and need to break the mold. I'm still sexist but want to work for equality."

The work of these New Alternative Dads is being forged within a country where a burgeoning men's movement has begun to gain the attention and imagination of many. Although the work of the activists is pro-feminist, gay-affirmative, and promotes males, it is too early to know whether this newer movement will effect changes of the magnitude of the women's and gay rights movements before it. It seems clear that some such change will be necessary if these New Alternative Dads are to realize their dreams.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Sidel (1990) noted that some women conform to societal norms (as Neotraditionalists), some are outside of the mainstream, and some seek alternatives to the American Dream—made possible by the gains of previous social movements. Similarly, men form a triangle girded by the traditional, alienated, and alternative visions of their future. It is important to note that while this small, non-random sample of young men suggests valid gender-role strategies and themes, one may not extrapolate too far from these findings. Neither age nor ethnicity of the subjects can be correlated to their group designation. Rather, a larger, more diverse sample would have resulted in greater variations between and within the groups. A large-scale study of men, using the methods of Sidel employed here, would reveal much about men's lives—their dreams and the effects of their social movements on how they envision the future.

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AUTHOR NOTES

This is a revised version of a paper presented at the Colorado Women's Studies Association annual conference, Denver, CO, October, 1992, and at the Fourth Interdisciplinary Men's Studies Conference, Chicago, IL, July, 1992. It was originally written for the Class Gender and Society taught by Dr. Diane Mitsch Bush at Colorado State University. The author wishes to thank Diane Bush and Michael Messina-Yauchzy for their comments, and all of the young men who participated in this study.

APPENDIX

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF MEN INTERVIEWED

Name (all fictive)	**Age**	**Ethnicity**	**Subgroup**
Alex Andrews	21	Afro-American	Neotraditionalist
Tom Bailey	23	Afro-American	Neotraditionalist
Scott Barnes	22	Caucasian	New Alternative Dad
Ronny Bird	18	Caucasian	Outsider
Martin Bradley	24	Caucasian	New Alternative Dad
Art Deutsch	13	Caucasian	Neotraditionalist
Adam Gonzales	14	Chicano	Neotraditionalist
Mark Gonzales	19	Chicano	New Alternative Dad
Keith Iwada	24	Asian American	Neotraditionalist
Antonio Morales	14	Chicano	New Alternative Dad
Chas Morgan	23	Caucasian	New Alternative Dad
Earl Owens	25	Caucasian	New Alternative Dad
Les Samuelson	14	Caucasian	Outsider
Dillon Stone	14	Caucasian	Outsider
Ned Turner	14	Caucasian	Outsider

GRADUATE SCHOOL 101

Char Boutillette

Thinking back to my preparation for graduate school, I have to laugh. I had the anxieties natural to someone returning to school after 13 years, but I was sure I could make it. After all, I could jump through those hoops. I had been married to a controlling, abusive man for nearly ten years; those hoops didn't scare me!

With the application and personal autobiography completed, and acceptance to the graduate program under my belt, I had only one step to go before classes began—orientation. I had graduate school all wrapped up by the night of orientation. Sure, I was going to have to do some personal exploration throughout this program, but that was going to be easy. After all, I was the one who spent the last five years soul-searching. Graduate school was the peak I was ready to climb. Wasn't it easy for me to talk about the big events in my life such as abortion, bulimia, anorexia, and divorce? I walked around the room boasting about how I had done all this searching already; this was going to be easy, I thought.

Reality hit the fourth week of the semester. By this time, I'd had a chance to settle down with my schedule, the clock was ticking for me to see my first client, the writing assignments were beginning to pile up. On top of all of this, I had been training to run a marathon. Little did I know that the work I had begun in the program would come to fruition while running the marathon.

Between the personal exploration and marathon, I was left completely vulnerable. The marathon broke down what physical barriers I had built up over the years. The seeds that had been planted so far would now be able to sprout, and I could then reap the benefits of the knowledge they would bring me.

After the marathon, my writing style changed completely; I began writing from the heart and began to listen to the stories I had to share. The new-found freedom in expression and personal exploration made me cry—I had been so arrogant.

I began my graduate program with the idea that I would eventually be doing something to help others. Helping myself never entered my mind, although that is what graduate school has become for me. I have learned that in order to be truly effective in life, I needed to become the most healthy person I could be. The program gave me the key to unlock the door to my inner sanctum. As I progress in the program, I will continue to look closely at what is inside.

Through the program, I have learned that there is an opportunity for personal growth with every event in our lives, from the big events down to the most minuscule happenings—perhaps the most important lesson thus far. These are there for the harvest if I remain open to possibilities.

Ms. Boutillette is a graduate student at Adams State College, Alamosa, CO.

AN INTRODUCTION TO WORK ADDICTION AND INDICATIONS FOR THERAPY

Laurie Branch, MA

ABSTRACT

A personal reflection on the experience of and recovery from work addiction. Workaholism is often undiagnosed by therapists, as was true in my case; education and awareness are two keys to resolving the problem of work addiction.

My name is Laurie and I am a workaholic. As I retrace the steps that led me to that declaration, I am struck by how deeply embedded workaholism was for me. My wake-up call was dramatic. How does one become addicted to work and what is wrong with that? Fassel (1990) defines the problem in the following way:

> Workaholism is a progressive, fatal disease in which a person is addicted to the process of working. As a result of the addiction, the person's life becomes increasingly unmanageable in relation to work, and all other areas of life are affected (pp. 3-4).

The roots of work addiction, like other addictions, begin in dysfunctional families. The pain of childhood is translated into acting out some form of addiction. Work addiction is appealing to some because it frequently provides the addict with financial rewards, approval from others, and a sense of self-importance while relieving the addict from uncomfortable and painful feelings at the same time. It is one of the most unacknowledged problems in our society. Workaholism is thought to be both a behavioral or process addiction as well as a substance addiction. This is the potentially hazardous part. Fassel (1990) says:

> The adrenaline rush and subsequent addiction is particularly dangerous for workaholics: it gives them an inflated estimate of their ability to keep working to the detriment of their bodies which may be giving out (p. 5).

For me, workaholism began in my teens when I began two jobs after school, one in the morning and one in the evening. This was an effective way for me to escape from my home where alcoholism and family dysfunction entrapped me. As I learned about work addiction, I began to understand the connection between that and my history as an adult child of an alcoholic. Robinson (1989) describes the seriousness of the problem:

> Work addiction is a disease. It is the blessed betrayal. It's the only lifeboat guaranteed to sink. It serves you as a child when you're drowning in the disease of alcoholism or family dysfunction. You think you're saved. But you're taken hostage by a disguised form of the sickness that helps you survive, and then insidiously reaches out its hand and insists on your paying the price... work addiction relieved pain, helped me forget, entertained me, offered me a sanctuary and gave me silent companionship when I felt all alone in the world (p. 24).

My addiction served me well, so I thought, until my health started to suffer and I understood how detrimental this socially acceptable ailment was.

Ms. Branch is a graduate of the Pastoral Counseling program at St. Thomas Seminary and is currently enrolled in the LPC and MFT Programs. She is employed part-time by the Boulder County Health Department as an Intervention Specialist for the St. Vrain Valley School District and is in private practice.

With the start of college, the disease progressed. I blindly followed the path of addiction into destructive, self-abusive behaviors. I remember working from eleven p.m. until seven a.m. and then attending classes the following day, barely able to keep my eyes open. While doing a clinical rotation in a neonatal intensive-care unit, my typical work schedule was seventy hours per week. Looking back, my fatigue was so great I could have endangered the life one of my patients quite easily.

Denial, self-esteem problems, inability to relax, obsessiveness, dishonesty, self-centeredness, isolation, control, perfectionism, piles and files, and spiritual bankruptcy.

I kept saying I would cut back on hours after I finished my two year program, then my B. S. program. This went on and on, and soon, I was in graduate school and demands were even greater. I believed I had to continue my hectic schedule. Because I believed I had no choice, I felt I wasn't responsible for my frantic schedule. This belief kept me in denial of my addiction. Fassel (1990) names the primary characteristics of workaholism:

> Multiple addictions, denial, self-esteem problems, external referenting, inability to relax and obsessiveness (p. 37).
>
> Additional characteristics shared by workaholics are: dishonesty, self-centeredness, isolation, control, perfectionism, piles and files, lack of intimacy, self-abuse, physical and psychological problems, and spiritual bankruptcy (p. 52).

Of all my symptoms of workaholism, clearly my physical problems were the most disturbing. The first clinical symptom was an episode of premature ventricular contractions in 1982. I was having breakfast at a restaurant when suddenly I became short of breath and felt my heart skip a beat. My friends took me to an emergency room where the physician said, "You are stressed out and exhausted. You need to quit smoking, cut down on drinking, stop using caffeine, and not work so much." I adhered to the first three orders and totally ignored his reference to my long work hours. Even if I had been capable of realizing that I was a workaholic at that time, I could not have stopped my behavior. It was something over which I had no control. Even when I made a conscious decision to reduce my work hours, I found myself filling in the time with other work-related tasks. Hart (1990) points out:

> Addictions totally control the addict, and the control transcends all logic or reason. This doesn't mean that addicts lack the responsibility or the ability to change. It merely means the attachment is very strong and cannot be overcome or resisted by logic or reason alone. This is one reason addictions are difficult to treat and to overcome (p. 6).

My second physical attack came after an automobile accident in 1987. This rear end collision left me with two herniated discs in my neck and temporal mandibular joint dysfunction. Both of these afflictions were greatly exacerbated by stress and my demanding work schedule. Often I would come home from work and collapse on my bed with blinding headaches. I was working two jobs during this period in my life while getting treated for the injuries sustained in the accident. I would often have five appointments or more a week with various health care providers.

I remember one day having a massage while I obsessed about work. According to Fassel (1990), "obsessiveness is a primary characteristic on the job" (p. 115). She also points out, "the obsessor cannot live without something to do, so a constant flow of new things is necessary" (p. 116). Shortly after this episode, I confided to a friend, "I was having a massage and couldn't relax. Thoughts about a grant I am working on and a list of things I had to do when I got back to the office made it impossible for me to enjoy the massage. I couldn't stop thinking about it." He replied, "Laurie, you are a workaholic. You're killing yourself. The reason your medical problems from the accident are getting worse is because you have not stopped to let yourself heal. You need help."

I knew he was right. At that point, I began attending Workaholics Anonymous meetings and found a solution to my problem of work addiction. Workaholics Anonymous is a twelve-step program modeled after the twelve steps of Alcoholics Anonymous. I discovered what a healthy work schedule was for me and committed to daily contact with another group member. This helped me to be honest and realistic about my daily and weekly work plans. I began to schedule breaks and days off. I started giving myself enough

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time to drive from one point to another rather than speeding to make it to my next appointment.

I continue to build upon these self-nurturing behaviors. I still have busy days and occasionally miss a meal or work a few extra hours. In a workshop, John Bradshaw said, "We become humans doing rather than human beings." After six years of recovery, I now have balance in my life and the ability to "just be."

Through the Twelve Steps of Workaholics Anonymous, I have gained insight about work addiction and recovery from work addiction. Initially, Workaholics Anonymous meetings were my sole source of support for not overworking. The group applauded me when I quit a prestigious job in which I was miserable.

Work addicts have difficulty facing their addiction because overworking is often praised, honored, and appreciated in our society. For example, Hemfelt, Minirth, and Meier (1991) claim:

> Drivenness, compulsivity, applauded addictions. These are interchangeable terms to describe the performance and perfection pressures that characterize this emotional health epidemic of the 1990s (p. 6).

It was in Workaholics Anonymous that I heard from members an aspect of work addiction that was not identified in recovery literature. Members called it "romance addiction around work." This is the idea that: 1.) there is a perfect job, 2.) the perfect job would automatically eliminate one's workaholic behavior. In my case, I initially had a belief that if I found the "perfect job" I would be happy and have a fulfilling work life. I viewed my job as the problem rather than my work habits.

Workaholism and the concept of romance addiction around work have many implications in the field of career counseling. I question whether some clients seeking career counseling might be unidentified work addicts who also possess a romantic belief that the perfect career would make them happy and free them from the painful cycle of work addiction. The disease could be discovered during the interview process if the career counselor was informed about work addiction. A thorough work history including hours worked, major problems on the job, types of jobs held and responsibilities, work patterns, and activities in other areas of life would help the career counselor screen the client for possible workaholic tendencies. Some clients could make their own "diagnosis" simply by seeing a list of characteristics of workaholics. The Work Addiction Risk Test is one diagnostic instrument being used.

I believe it is the responsibility of counselors to educate people about work addiction and take it seriously. I was in therapy for three years and was never identified. My commitment as a therapist is to promote wellness and a sense of well-being in my clients. Work addiction is killing people in our country. Recovery from work addiction can truly save lives.

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HOMESELF, SACREDSELF: HOW I KNOW I AM HEADED IN THE RIGHT DIRECTION

Adel Windsor

Homeself, Sacredself

I would counsel you to be still
To move away from everything for a time
To wait quietly until you come home to yourself
There will be signs
Songs will sing from your lips
Your body will dance with you
Your eyes will see magic
Where you keep the fresh flower
Where you burn the candle
Also where you cry and where you bleed
There will be signs
The magic of your homeself, your sacredself
Will take you to the sky
Luna will welcome your flight
With silver embraces
Comets will be your lovers
Trails of stars will carry you inward
Until, at your core, a cataclysm will burst
To the magic of your soul

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With gratitude to her, I have borrowed Ila Suzanne's poem for my paper. "Homeself, Sacredself" embodies both the sensation I felt within me when I discovered the counseling field and the goal I set before me now as a counselor.

In my previous job as a teacher, and my current job as a nurse, there have been flickers of this sensation of homecoming. They have invariably occurred during moments of relationship with students, patients, or other souls. However, these moments of relationship were relegated to auxiliary status behind the primary goals of producing an educated mind or a healed wound. The end product was evaluated with little honoring of the subtle process that created it. In fact, the process needed to be justified and documented in accordance with standardized norms.

One of my weaknesses, judging by the criteria of both teaching and nursing, was that, by nature, I dwell in and find my joy in the abstract processes of life: the magic that flows between souls, the inspiration of a windy moonlit night, the intricate latticework between mind and emotion.

More accurately, my weakness is that I spent so many years striving to bury that joy and become "productive." I criticized myself for the classes I gave that were not inspiring, yet I had buried my inspiration. I criticized myself when a baby died or became more ill, or I forgot one of the numerous trivial tasks of nursing that are supposed to demonstrate efficiency. In the symbolic language of Myers-Briggs typology, I was striving to be a successful Sensation type while suppressing my innate Intuition function. As my discomfort grew, I listened well enough to my intuition to recognize the signs of soul distress. Then, I allowed myself to slow down and reach for deeper self-awareness.

During the process of "coming home to myself," I was reminded that the inner values which had drawn me first to teaching and then to nursing were not being reflected in my work. I could not blame this solely on the mandates of the workplace. I had introjected the values of my family of

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origin as ideal and, just as in childhood, found that I was lacking. My family glorified achievement, order, and efficiency. "Let's get the job done" was my mother's. She judged unproductive my desire to watch, draw, listen, and commune with nature and people. While I thought I had been attracted to the nurturing and relationship-oriented aspects of teaching and nursing, I had actually chosen two professions constrained by the same achievement-oriented mandates as my family. I unconsciously chose professions in which the outer 'shoulds' reflected those within me, leaving little room for nurturing or personal fulfillment.

It is quite possible that my inner changes have unrealistically tainted my view of counseling. I am sure, given the overall achievement-orientation of our society, that a good percentage of the places employing counselors also emphasize product, documented success, and financial gain. However, for me, these externally imposed standards are far easier to dismiss in the counseling setting. Thus, it is equally possible that my increased self-awareness has allowed me to discover a career more suited to my intrinsic needs.

In counseling, my own values and career activities are no longer at odds. As a counselor, I am not willing to lose track of my highest ideal: The unique inner self, or soul, of each person is sacred. When I am in a room with a client, or group of clients, that room is full of the magic that can pass between souls. Of course, paperwork and documentation still face me after I leave that room. My own values may diverge uncomfortably from those of the client. A particular session may seem "non-productive" if a few of those standardized norms trickle under the door and crawl into my lap. Yet, despite all such adversities, that sense of sacredness prevails, as it has done in no other career I have experienced.

At my current job as psychiatric nurse, I have had an unusual opportunity to substantiate this difference in satisfaction between nursing and counseling. Although the majority of my tasks emanate from the nursing domain, and thus carry the burden of documented productiveness and standardized protocols, I also serve in a counseling capacity. In those two hours a day that I facilitate therapy groups, and in the individual therapy sessions with my designated patients, the sensation of homecoming returns. I have worked with clients caught in cycles of violence toward themselves or others, clients unable to move out of their emotional pain enough to speak, and client considered manipulative and intractable under the medical model. There are also sessions that I allow to drain me or when self-doubts still whisper in my ear. Nonetheless, when I am in the room there is sacredness—I am engaged in the process of life—and I walk out with a sense of personal fulfillment that overrides the immediate emotions.

As a counselor, the goal I set before me is to assist each client to come home to his or her self, to whatever degree he or she is presently able. By recognition of the magic of each soul, some clients will be induced to perceive the magic also. In any case, I will have enjoyed the process. This joy in the process affirms that I am headed in the right direction career-wise.

FEATURE

COUNSELORS AS EXPERT WITNESSES IN COURT: SUGGESTIONS FOR SURVIVAL AND SUCCESS

Marsha Wiggins Frame, PhD

ABSTRACT

Counselors are increasingly asked to serve as expert witnesses in court proceedings. This article addresses the philosophical differences between the mental health system and the legal system, clarifies the role of the expert witness, and offers concrete guidelines for providing expert testimony in court.

Increasingly, the domain of counselors is being expanded beyond the private therapy office, school, or community agency into the courtroom. With the growth in litigation of all types, counselors are often called upon to serve as an expert witness in court proceedings. Counselors who must venture into the legal arena may feel ill-equipped for the task and overwhelmed by its demands. This article addresses the philosophical differences between the mental health system and the legal system, clarifies the role of the expert witness, and offers concrete guidelines for providing expert testimony in court.

When counselors are subpoenaed to appear in court to testify regarding their clinical contacts with clients, they are regarded as lay witnesses (Remley, 1991). If called to testify in this capacity, they are required to testify only to what occurred in the past (Stevens-Smith & Hughes, 1993) and are not permitted to offer opinions about those interactions.

It is important to note that in Colorado licensed professional counselors, licensed marriage and family therapists, licensed clinical social workers, licensed psychologists, and clinicians directly supervised by licensed therapists may claim that communication between themselves and their clients is "privileged." "Privileged communication" is a legal concept ensuring that clients' disclosures of personal information are protected from exposure by therapists in legal proceedings (Baird & Rupert, 1987). If the client waives this privilege, the professional has no legal grounds for withholding the information. However, if privilege has not been waived by the client, then the professional has a responsibility to honor the client's confidentiality by claiming that therapeutic communication is privileged. When privileged communication is claimed, it is then the responsibility of the attorney seeking the testimony to secure a hearing in order for the judge to rule on the claim of privilege.

An expert witness, unlike a lay witness, is someone whose role is to "formulate a presented opinion in court based on [his or her] specialized knowledge of mental health" (Remley, 1991, p. 39). Counselors are likely to be called as an expert witness to address such issues as child abuse and neglect, child custody disputes, the competence of a child to function as court witness, and matters regarding the appropriate placement of juveniles whose families are involved in child abuse allegations. The expert witness may be hired by an attorney to perform this role (Stevens-Smith & Hughes, 1993), or their job responsibilities may lead to this obligation.

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THE MENTAL HEALTH SYSTEM AND THE LEGAL SYSTEM: A CLASH IN WORLD VIEWS

Counselors are trained to be warm, caring, genuine, empathic, and respectful when dealing with clients (Carkhuff, 1969; Rogers, Gendlen, Kiesler & Truax, 1967; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). Moreover, they are adept at seeing the world from the client's point of view, believe in the worth and dignity of all people, and have developed a tolerance for ambiguity (Corey, 1991). They have been schooled in seeking "win-win" solutions to problems (Moore, 1986) and are proficient in considering the best interests of all parties when confronting disputes. Indeed, counselors operate out of a scientific method and seek "to determine the factors that influence a certain behavior and to evaluate the extent and direction of their influence through hypothesis testing" (Newman, 1991, p. 241).

Guilty or Not Guilty. The legal system is adversarial rather than cooperative. It presses for absolutes, rather than relative hypotheses.

Conversely, the legal system is adversarial rather than cooperative. It presses for absolutes, rather than relative hypotheses (Vandenberg, 1993). It demands dichotomy: "guilty" or "not guilty," rather than describing behaviors along a continuum. The entire court proceeding is designed as a "win-lose" proposition in which the best interests of each attorney's client are the focus. While counselors shine in communication, attorneys' strength is in intimidation. Given these diametrically opposed perspectives, when counselors enter the legal arena, they may feel inadequate and overwhelmed by the nature of the legal process. It is crucial that counselors understand their role as expert witness and become skilled in dealing with the pressure of performing on the witness stand.

THE ROLE OF THE EXPERT WITNESS

Unlike a lay or factual witness, an expert witness has both the responsibility and privilege of offering to the court an opinion based on their proficiency in a given area. Neutrality and impartiality characterize the role of the expert witness. At times this stance can be difficult to maintain, especially when counselors are called to testify about current or former clients. Again, because the privileged communication statute extends to all licensed mental health providers in Colorado, it may be invoked when the therapist wishes to keep confidential therapeutic material. Nevertheless, when counselors adopt the role of expert witness and agree to testify, it is not only inappropriate to act as an advocate for a particular party, but to do so minimizes the credibility of the witness' statements. (Vandenberg, 1993). In fact, many expert witnesses have been criticized for giving biased testimony and have been accused of playing the role of a "hired gun" (Schultz-Ross, 1993). Brodsky and Robey (1973) developed an effective response to the accusation of being a bought expert; they respond to such intimidation by saying:

> It has been said that 'whose bread we eat, his [sic] song we sing.' It is for exactly that reason I bend over backwards to double and triple check my findings, to insure there is no hint of bias interfering with my conclusions (p. 176).

In order to provide effective expert testimony, counselors must acknowledge both the strengths and limitations of their evaluations and conclusions.

If counselors choose to enter the arena of "expert witnessing," their success in this role depends on mastering some specialized skills. Guidelines to assist mental health professionals who become an expert witness in court follow.

SUGGESTIONS FOR SURVIVAL AND SUCCESS

1. LEARN THE RULES OF THE GAME.

Court proceedings have a structure, language, and set of rules by which they are organized. Although counselors may be unfamiliar with this sphere, if they are to be an effective expert witness, they must understand the general procedures and regulations which govern court proceedings. Attending several hearings as an observer before actually taking the witness stand can prove an invaluable learning experiences. Also, consulting with colleagues who have experience is extremely helpful. Availing oneself of specialized training through continuing education opportunities also is beneficial.

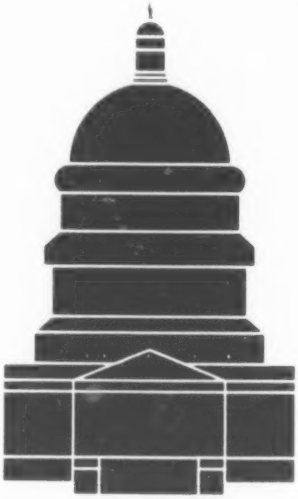
2. REVIEW ETHICAL OBLIGATIONS.

If testimony will violate confidentiality and/or privileged communication, counselors should seek an appropriate release of information from the client or a court order from the judge. Dual relationships between clients and/or other participants in the legal proceeding should be avoided. For example, it would be considered a conflict of interest for a counselor to serve as an expert witness for her brother, an attorney on the case. Likewise, if the potential expert had a close relationship with other participants in the proceedings, serving in such a capacity for that case could be considered unethical. In addition, if a counselor evaluates or provides therapeutic services for a client for the purposes of serving as an expert witness, clients should be given a disclosure form which reveals how the information they provide will be used in court.

3. MEET AND PREPARE WITH THE HIRING ATTORNEY.

Because the attorney who hires or subpoenas an expert is developing an argument in order to win a case, it is imperative that counselors meet with the attorney face-to-face to learn what the issues are, to gain insight into the opposing attorney's theories and strategy, and to understand the purpose of their testimony. An expert witness who is confused about the issues and the direction of a case can be ineffective.

Another reason to meet with the ally attorney is to educate him or her regarding the particular area of expertise. Although most attorneys are well-versed in legal matters, many have little understanding of the theories and practice of psychotherapy, child abuse and neglect, the battered spouse syndrome, human development, or other areas of counselors' expertise. It is important for counselors to communicate to attorneys what information is important and give supporting documentation. Likewise, it is critical to clarify the limits of one's expertise in order to avoid having the attorney build a case on assumptions which the counselor cannot honestly and factually support.



In addition, in order to serve as "expert," a witness has to be "qualified" or ruled as expert in a given field by the judge presiding over the hearing. Therefore, it is extremely useful to share one's current vita with the hiring attorney. A good vita should include all relevant professional training (including continuing education), specialized experience, presentations, and publications. Completing this step will inform the attorney of one's credentials and assist him or her in making the case. Counselors who expect to function in the role of expert witness should keep accurate records of the occasions in which they have previously been qualified as experts. Prior qualification as an expert is a major contributor to a judge's subsequent recognition of one's expertise.

4. TAKE DEPOSITIONS SERIOUSLY.

Although attorneys and court reporters may attempt to create an informal atmosphere at a deposition, counselors should refrain from fraternizing and should maintain a professional demeanor at all times. Because the purpose of a deposition is for the defense to gather information and look for weaknesses in a witness's testimony, anything said by a potential witness may be used in court. Counselors functioning as an expert witness should answer questions honestly but succinctly. There will be further opportunity for elaboration during the actual hearing.

5. BE PREPARED.

The expert witness is usually expected to provide clear and specific information regarding records (including exact dates, times, and places) of client contacts. They are also expected to be able to give a rationale for their theoretical approach and to justify their methods of evaluation and/or treatment. Knowledge of and the ability to cite current literature enhances the counselor's perceived competence. Being familiar with opposing views and weaknesses in one's own data increases the counselor's credibility as an expert. If it is necessary to refer to notes, this procedure is acceptable; however, any written material brought into the courtroom may be made available to both attorneys and may even be made part of the court record.

6. DON'T BE INTIMIDATED!

Opposing attorneys often resort to intimidation and direct attack when attempting to discredit an expert. They may endeavor to trap witnesses, put words in their mouths, misinterpret their statements, and strive to coerce witnesses into answering "yes" or "no" to questions when an accurate answer requires an explanation or a qualifier. Competent witnesses expect such tactics and use cognitive restructuring techniques (Meichenbaum, 1986) to bolster self-confidence. For example, they remind themselves of their expertise and their right to take their time in formulating responses.

When an attorney asks a question with multiple parts, or a question which is unclear, it is permissible to ask for the question to be broken down, or to be rephrased for clarity. When badgered by an attorney, the best response is to be firm but nondefensive. Refusing to be unnerved by a hostile attorney is a mark of a good expert witness.

7. USE THE TECHNIQUES OF GOOD PUBLIC SPEAKING.

Anyone who has taken a basic speech course knows that tone of voice, inflection, pacing, gesturing, timing, and use of silence are paramount in effective oral communication. These are no less true in performing as an expert witness in court. Counselors should remember that as a witness they are actors in a drama. Their goal is to use all of their skills to insure that the "audience" (judge and jury) perceive their expertise in a given area. Moreover, because the court hearing is essentially a struggle for power and control, the judicious use of these techniques can reduce the witness's feelings of weakness or defeat.

8. PRACTICE TECHNIQUES TO COUNTERACT ATTACK DURING CROSS-EXAMINATION.

Clinical skills often prove extremely helpful for counselors on the witness stand. Reframing can be a powerful means of presenting data to the court in a new light (Huber & Baruth, 1987; Meyerstein & Todd, 1980). Such a technique has the effect of challenging the opposing attorney's argument. In addition, when an attorney is belligerent, simply describing the observed behavior may curb it. For example, Brodsky (1991) suggested saying, "I notice you are raising your voice a lot now" (p. 107) in order to get the attorney to back off.

Brodsky (1991) also listed other forceful techniques such as "Admit-Deny" (p. 4), "Negative Assertion" (p. 131), and "Push Pull" (p. 166). When confronted with questions that are loaded or partially true, Brodsky (1991) advises to admit the part that is true and strongly disagree with the false aspect. For example, an attorney may ask, "Isn't it true that children often lie?" Astute witnesses will anticipate that the attorney is covertly suggesting that a child abuse victim may have lied about the abuse. In response to such a question, the witness can use the Admit-Deny approach and say, "While children certainly do lie on occasion, they usually do it to stay out of trouble, not to create trouble."

Negative Assertion involves strongly disagreeing with an attorney who expects to receive an affirmative answer to a question. For example, when asked, "Isn't it true that psychological tests are full of error and not very accurate?," clever witnesses might use the negative assertion and reply, "No, quite to the contrary! Although there is some margin of error in all tests, valid and reliable tests can be quite accurate in predicting certain behavior."

Another technique, Push-Pull, essentially involves "going with the resistance." When an attorney pulls in one direction, rather than resisting and becoming defensive as the attorney expects, the competent witness pushes even harder in the same direction. An attorney may say, "You have told the court that in your professional opinion Jason should be in his father's custody. Your assessments aren't perfect are they?" Although one might be tempted to defend the evaluation procedure, according to Brodsky (1991) it is often effective to strongly agree with the attorney and say, "I most certainly am *not* perfect and I don't know of anyone who is." All of these methods are attempts to catch the opposing attorney off-guard and to gain more power and control on the witness stand.

9. DON'T BE AFRAID TO SAY "I DON'T KNOW."

Even "experts" don't know everything. Acknowledging the boundaries of one's expertise can increase one's credibility as a witness. Brodsky (1991) maintained that witnesses who are bold enough to say "I don't know" can change the way they are perceived. "They can now be seen as having respect for their limitations, having humility, and having the good sense not to try to know everything in every situation" (p. 174). The most important thing is not to say "I don't know" too often, nor to say it defensively. Alternative responses such as, "It's an answer nobody knows" or "It would be difficult for anybody to know..." are often effective.

10. RESIST PERSONALIZING THE CASE.

Although testifying in court can be intensely emotional and demanding, survival and successful performance in the role of expert witness requires objectivity and distancing. Because many counselors have personality types which make them vulnerable to taking criticism personally (Hirsh & Kummerow, 1989), they may feel personally berated under cross-examination. A wise witness reminds themself that opposing attorneys are not usually attacking *them*, but are seeking weaknesses in their data or conclusions.

Another obstacle for counselors to overcome, in their role as expert witness, is that of taking too much responsibility for the outcome of the case. It is useful to remember that much evidence and the testimony of many witnesses contribute to the final ruling in a case.

CONCLUSION

The courtroom may be a new and somewhat awesome arena for counselors to enter. Being trained in cooperation, they may be shocked at the adversarial nature of legal proceedings. However, when they utilize these suggestions and play their roles in the courtroom drama as accurately and professionally as possible, counselors have a great opportunity to contribute to the cause of justice.

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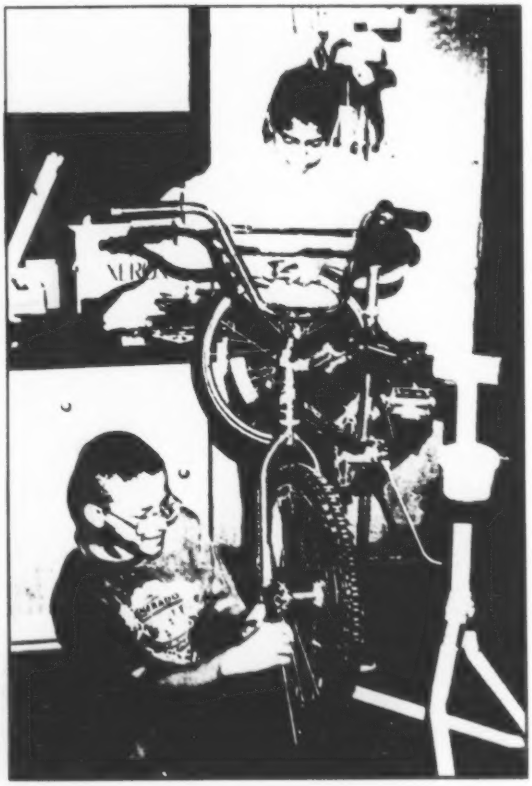
ON THE EDGE

WEST BIKE REPAIR SHOP

Karen Hickey

Would you be interested in a counseling project that builds instant rapport, costs only a few dollars, and is a sure bet for success with middle-level kids? West Middle School in Aurora has such an activity—a bicycle repair program—and it happened by accident. In 1987, when a neighbor gave me a 20" bicycle left over from a garage sale, I brought the bike to my office to see if any students would be interested in it. The response was overwhelming! A number of students wanted the bicycle, while others volunteered to fix it up and get it in good working condition. Thus the bicycle repair project was started at West Middle School.

Our only tools were a screwdriver, a pair of pliers and a wrench given to us by the principal. The first year, the "bike shop boys," volunteering at lunch and after school, repaired not only that bike but 25 more for fellow students. Bikes to be repaired came from West staff members and their friends, as well as from employees in other Aurora schools.



Photogravure, used with permission

Being a bicycle grease monkey myself, I often carried on counseling sessions, with a student working on one end of the bike and me on the other. We talked about family problems, schools, peer relations, drugs, and alcohol in a very relaxed setting. It didn't take long to realize that the bike project could well be a middle school equivalent of play therapy. In play therapy a child's natural activity, play, is utilized in creating a relaxed therapy setting to foster communication between child and counselor and to encourage the child to explore behaviors and express feelings. I discovered that bicycles to middle school students are what toys and other play items are to younger children, enabling me to reach and relate to middle school students in a natural, comfortable way.

The bike project continued on a limited basis in the counseling office until 1992, when it was included in a service learning grant from the Colorado Department of Education. This cooperative school/community effort involved West Middle School, the Optimist Club, the YMCA, Rel Education Lab, and the Aurora Police Department. With the grant, West would be able to have a fully equipped, state-of-the-art bike repair shop with all the, proper tools, equipment, and supplies. Volunteer teachers would come from the community.

In the 13 months since the counseling office bike project became the West Middle School bicycle repair

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shop, a number of changes have taken place. The old days of one-to-one counselor/student interaction are no longer. Bonding now is between the volunteer instructors and students, while I serve as project facilitator and shop coordinator. No longer are there a handful of "bike shop boys"—we now have more than 50 students a year, including girls, emerging as fully-trained bicycle repair technicians. Bike shop classes continue three days a week, with students working on their own bikes, other students' bikes, and donated bikes.

There are several heart-warming stories from the bike project/bike shop. One of the "bike boys" from early days, now 19, came to West recently to donate two bikes. He said the bike project alone had kept him in school a few years ago and he now has volunteered to be an instructor.

Another bike shop boy, a sixth grader, had been ditching school with regularity and tearing up the classroom when he did attend. However, his mechanical giftedness was easy to recognize and I got him involved in fixing bikes. When the school custodian quit in the middle of the year, this student took the bike project tool box and went from classroom to classroom, offering "fix-it" services. He literally kept the place together until a new custodian was hired. This year, this young student, now an eighth grader, was recognized as one of the founding fathers of the bike shop and gave talks in the community about it. He spoke to an audience of more than 100 people at a service learning conference at the Community College of Aurora and to a regional meeting of the YMCA. He loves to about tell what a difference the bike shop made in his life. Using Aurora Public Schools' learner outcome language, he told one audience that the shop had made him into a "collaborative worker!"

[illegible] Aurora Public Schools

Students like being in the bike shop. Their responses on an evaluation indicate they gain self-esteem, mastery of a skill, and practice in cooperating and relating with others. Eighty percent of the students rated their experience in the program an A or A+. Twenty percent rated it a B or B+. Comments from the students focus on skills gained, with "I learned to take bikes apart and put them back together" and "I learned to use a variety of tools." More importantly, though, is the comment, "We learned how to work together.

Beyond the counseling opportunity it affords, we are aware of a number of other benefits from the bike shop experience. Although we do not have official statistics on bike shop participation relating to student performance and behavior, some informal indicators show the shop experience has a positive impact on students. No bike shop participant's name was on the two or more Fs list for the fourth quarter and none was on the possible retention list. Only one bike shop student was listed on the serious discipline list for fourth quarter. Several students' attendance improved considerably once they were enrolled in the bike shop. We counselors are always looking for avenues to reach kids, ideas and projects to engage them in school and encourage improved school performance.

We are always looking for ways to connect with kids, to build rapport that leads to effective counseling relationships. A bike project is a great motivator, a great rapport builder, and an incredibly easy activity to get started. All that would be needed for a bike project in a school, clinic, or neighborhood would be a few tools, a few bikes, and a few kids. Add to that a place to work and a little time and the project could be underway. Success, in terms of adolescent buy-in and enhanced self-esteem, is guaranteed.

Photogravure, with permission

AFTER–SCHOOL CARE: AN INNOVATIVE COUNSELING SETTING

Marsha Wiggins Frame, PhD & Darlee Whiting

In 1991, an estimated 601,400 children (K-8) were enrolled in 13,500 before- and after-school programs located in public schools (Farquhar & Hardcastle, 1993). Many of these childcare programs are characterized as partnerships with community agency sponsors (Farquhar & Hardcastle, 1993). In the south suburban area of metropolitan Denver, one such program serves 12 schools and over 300 children (M. Bane, personal communication, July 14, 1994). Children who participate in after-school care programs are therefore unavailable to seek traditional counseling services during the afternoon hours, the "Prime time" period for counselors to see young clients. One viable solution to this dilemma is to bring counseling services to these children in their after-school care settings. While some after-school programs do offer counseling services, at least 65% do not (Farquhar & Hardcastle, 1993).

The first step in developing an after-school counseling program is to consult with the director. If the director is willing to explore the possibility of incorporating a counseling component into after-school care, a needs assessment should be conducted. Such an assessment could include surveys or interviews of childcare workers, teachers, and parents. If there is evidence of a need for counseling services and a willingness to support and participate in them, further program development can take place.

In many cases, fees for after-school counseling would be borne by individual families whose children require services. Such a practice is common when Scouting organizations and sports teams offer their programs to children involved in after-school care. Other funding options include seeking grants from charitable or governmental agencies or securing Medicaid benefits. Universities with counselor training programs may consider developing practicum and internship opportunities when counseling services could be provided free of charge.

The after-school care program is an ideal environment for fostering communication and enhancing a joint effort of parents, teachers, school counselors, and childcare workers to address children's mental health needs. School personnel who identify children with emotional difficulties would have avenues of referral for individual counseling services. With client consent, families, counselors, and school personnel could work together to improve a client's emotional adjustment, behavioral control, and school performance.

Group counseling would also be an efficient and effective modality for counselors to employ in an after-school childcare setting. Children could be helped to cope with issues such as divorcing parents, relocation, grief and loss, peer relationships, and family violence. In addition, because parents pick up children from childcare programs after work, they would be available for consultation and potentially for participation in parent education and other preventative and family wellness programs.

As a result of initiating counseling services in after-school childcare programs, children with emotional needs could be adequately and conveniently served. Moreover, the school could become the community setting for education, childcare, and mental health services.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Caught in the Middle: Protecting the Children of High Conflict Divorce. Carla B. Garrity and Mitchell A. Baris. New York: Lexington Books. 1994. 172 pp. ($19.95)

Carla B. Garrity and Mitchell A. Baris are Colorado child psychologists who have produced a book for the benefit of children in *Caught in the Middle: Protecting the Children of High Conflict Divorce.*

Besides grappling with the usual stages of growing up, children in divorce situations face numerous additional pressures. As many as one third of these children are pawns in the continuing animosity between their parents, often without the adults' recognition. Many interventions are possible to assist the parents with moving toward cooperative co-parenting.

Garrity and Baris enumerate the factors that influence a positive outcome for these children. They describe the issues that parents involve their children in, warning that continued, unresolved conflict can have severe long-term results.

The authors describe the impact of parental conflict on various ages of children: developmental responses and potential negative consequences if steps aren't taken toward remedying the stress. Useful checklists with specific descriptions help the reader assess the level of conflict. Visitation guidelines are then listed, given the developmental age of the child and the level of conflict of the parents.

"Parental alienation syndrome," in which one parent encourages the child to reject the other parent, is the most tragic result of a high conflict divorce. Garrity and Baris describe this syndrome and the manifestation of specific behaviors, as well as the importance of early recognition and intervention.

Caught in the Middle includes a comprehensive intervention model that recommends strategies to utilize a parenting coordinator, children's therapist, and support services for the targeted parent as well as the alienating parent. The parenting coordinator assists parents with creating a plan that moves from "conflictual to cooperative parenting," usually working through the stage of "disengagement." This helps the parents get through impasses and keeps children out of the loop of parental conflict.

A sample of a legal parenting plan and a parenting checklist of areas that may need to be addressed are included in appendices, as are formal parenting coordinator and children's therapist agreements.

This book can be a valuable starting place for divorcing parents. Conflict mediators or arbitrators, therapists, and members of the legal system involved with divorce cases will find this book contains specific explanations and interventions to guide parents toward cooperative co-parenting, ultimately actualizing the well-being of the children of divorce.

Reviewed by Pam Stinson, a counselor at Wheat Ridge High School, R 1 Jefferson County School District

In Love and In Danger: A Teen's Guide to Breaking Free of Abusive Relationships. Barrie Levy. Seattle: Seal Press. 1993. 107 pp. ($8.95)

Though teenagers find themselves dealing with numerous adult problems today, one of the most serious can be an abusive relationship. Barrie Levy has penned some advice for them in *In Love and In Danger.*

The book opens with first-person accounts of destructive relationships—two teenage girls and a mother whose daughter had come through a dangerously violent relationship. The accounts are raw and powerful.

Levy includes statistics about the increase of dating violence (an estimate is 28%), claiming at least one out of every four students are impacted. *In Love and In Danger* also defines types of abuse—from emotional (verbal put-downs, interrogations, threats of telling secrets, isolating the boy or girl from others' influence) to physical to sexual (including coercion). Quotes from teens include those in gay and straight relationships, girls and boys.

A series of questions helps teens decide whether they are either victims or abusers themselves. The cycle of violence is then explained: tension-building, explosion, and honeymoon stages. Reasons why abuse occurs are explored, the price of staying in the relationship is discussed, and deciding whether to leave or stay in the relationship is evaluated.

Suggestions for victims or abusers wanting to make changes are listed. A short final chapter offers hope for future, healthy relationship choices.

Blank pages are included throughout, with questions that lead the reader to personal responses about each area covered. *In Love and In Danger* is a quick read for teens, with lots of opportunity for personal reflection and discussion. Teens and those who work with them will benefit from the information and advice.

Reviewed by Pam Stinson

When Love Goes Wrong: What to Do When You Can't Do Anything Right. Ann Jones and Susan Schechter. New York: Harper Collins Publishers. 1992. 345 pp. ($20)

According to a reference from an August 1990 Journal of the American Medical Association, battering is now the single most common cause of injury to women in the United States. The media attention given to recent cases such as the Simpson/Goldman murders in California offers an opportunity to scrutinize the problem of destructive relationships. *When Love Goes Wrong* is an excellent resource for women and helping professionals.

Authors Ann Jones and Susan Schechter offer an analysis of controlling partners: men who gain power using a variety of tactics to get their way. Checklists of these coercive actions are provided to help women sort out what is happening in their own relationships. First-person accounts add readability, empowering controlled women to take action that can help them regain their lives.

An early chapter addresses the woman's denial and minimizing of these behaviors and her attempt to "take the blame" for the abuse. However, the book emphasizes that the controller is the problem, by choosing to behave destructively.

A later chapter offers evaluations of programs for batterers, what works and what does not. (The authors, for example, guard against couple therapy when there is an imbalance of power.) More checklists give suggestions for evaluating a good counselor for this kind of work and for assessing changes following help.

Most of the book deals with helping women make decisions about whether or not to stay in the relationship, and what to do if the decision is to leave. Tips about shelters and other housing options, gaining financial support, using the legal system, and developing a support system of personal advocates can empower women to make the best choices for themselves and their children.

Special sections help women protect their children, find help for their own substance abuse problems, and choose new potential partners. Advice is given for family, friends, and professionals in a position to help. There is an extensive bibliography and list of resources in the appendix.

When Love Goes Wrong is a compelling book with a plethora of practical assessments and suggestions for women in negative and dangerous relationships. It's a must for a counselor's bookshelf.

Reviewed by Pam Stinson

David Dengerink

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CAADA	Oct
CACES	Oct
CAMFC	
CSERVIC	Oct
CASGW	Oct
CAMCD	Sept
CCDA	Oct
CCSDA	May
CMHCA	Jan
CSCA	June

CCA CONFERENCE REGISTRATION
October 20, 21 1994

"Everyday Heroes, Our Hope for Tomorrow"

ONE HOUR CDE RECERTIFICATION CREDIT FOR FULL CONFERENCE PARTICIPATION
(Ethically, we can only verify CDE credit to those who attend the conference both days, which fulfills the fifteen hours required for one semester hour)
NBCC CREDITS WILL ALSO BE GIVEN

Registration

Refer to Conference Schedule for Events and Speakers	Member	Non-Member
Options		
1. *ENTIRE CONFERENCE. All events Thursday, Thursday evening banquet and all day Friday *(Breakfast and lunch provided) (One semester hour CDE credit)*	$90.00	$124.00
2. Thursday only. (8:30 a.m. - 5:30 p.m.)	$ 5.00	$ 84.00
3. Thursday evening only. (6:00 - 9:30 p.m.)	$20.00	$ 20.00
4. Friday only. (7:30 a.m. - 4:00 p.m.)	$50.00	$ 84.00
Graduate Students Who Are CCA Members Can Attend		
5. Entire conference including meals	$50.00	
6. Entire conference no meals	$25.00	

✂ -

Please identify your primary division/affiliate. That division will receive a percentage rebate based on attendance, as part of their fundraising efforts. (please check only one.)

__ CAADA __ CSCA __ CAMFC __ CASGW __ CMHCA __ OTHER ________

__ CACES __ CAMCD __ CARVIC __ CCDA/CECA __ CCSDA

Please register me for option __ (give number) above. Amount due.

Name ____________________ Home address ____________________

Business/corporation/school ____________________ Work address ____________________

Home Phone ____________________ Work Phone ____________________

☐ Check if you prefer all meals vegetarian.

Mail registration form and check (payable to CCA) to:

Marshall May
P.O. Box 510
Eastlake, CO 80614-0510

Registration closes October 7, 1994. After that add $20.00 late registration.

Questions?

Call Marshall May, (303) 466-2647, or Caroline Baker, (719) 520-5365

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Colorado Springs

4 South Cascade Avenue Colorado Springs, Colorado 80903
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Dates: October 19 October 20 October 21
Circle dates of attendance

Name ______________________
Last First

Name(s) ______________________
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Company / Association
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Street address
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Additional Person $10.00. Room types are on a "request only" basis.
Rates subject to city hotel tax—currently 9.2%.

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Membership is on an annual basis with renewal dates in April and October. Please complete this form as accurately as possible. You will receive your mail at home unless you request the business address.

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☐ Renewal

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The above person is (at minimum) a half-time graduate student as defined by this school's criteria and is taking classes in counseling, guidance, or psychology.

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Awareness—The Journal of the Colorado Counseling Association welcomes original manuscripts on topics or issues related to all divisions of the Colorado Counseling Association. If you are interested in a particular issue, work in a model program, deal with special clientele, work in an unusual setting, or develop new motivational materials, the *Journal* welcomes your ideas. All material should communicate ideas clearly to a readership composed primarily of practitioners. Articles are expected to contain recent information and reflect current research and trends within counseling disciplines. Book reviews are also welcome.

Manuscripts are acknowledged upon receipt and sent to appropriate experts for blind review. Authors will be notified as to disposition of a submitted article. Upon publication, the author receives three copies of the *Journal*.

Manuscripts are accepted throughout the year, with a February 1, 1995 deadline for the Spring 1995 issue. *Awareness* includes artwork and photography. Submissions are encouraged. Any artwork needs to be in black and white and camera-ready. Photography must be in black and white and no larger than 5" x 7".

Submit manuscripts and art to Patricia Cappellucci, Editor, *Journal of the Colorado Counseling Association*, 777 S. Wadsworth Blvd., Bldg. 1 Ste. 203, Lakewood, CO 80226. Contact the editor at (303) 946-4743 or (303) 985-0758 with questions or ideas concerning your article or idea for a manuscript.

- Submit four clear copies, along with a 3.5" floppy disk containing the manuscript in word processing form—MS Word or Works preferred.
- Manuscripts should not exceed 3,000 words. A typical article would run from 8-12 pages of double-spaced, typewritten copy. However, do not let length considerations inhibit expressing of ideas.
- Double-space material, including references, quotations, tables, and figures.
- Cite sources correctly in the bibliography and in-text notes.
- Use tables sparingly and type them on separate pages. Supply graphs, illustrations, and drawings as camera-ready art.
- Follow the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 3rd Edition.
- Avoid use of generic masculine pronouns and sexist terminology.
- Use current research as much as possible.
- Document research and sources correctly.
- Avoid footnotes.
- Authors bear responsibility for accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures.
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